DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 258 474	FL 015 103

AUTHOR	Reder, Stephen; Cohn, Mary
TITLE	A Study of the Extent and Effect of English Language Training for Refugees. Phase II: Classroom Observation and Community Survey.
INSTITUTION	Northwest Regional Educational Lab., Portland, Oreg. Office of Research and Evaluation Services.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Refugee Resettlement (DHHS), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Apr 84
CONTRACT	HHS-100-81-0066
NOTE	352p.; For related documents, see FL 015 101-105. Appendices contain small print.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Tests/Evaluation Instruments (160)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC15 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Asian Americans; Costs; Educational Quality; *English (Second Language); Environment; Financial Support; National Surveys; Program Administration; Program Design; *Program Effectiveness; *Refugees; Regional Planning; *Second Language Programs; State Agencies; Student Characteristics; Tables (Data)

ABSTRACT

The second phase of a study of the impact of English language training programs on adult Southeast Asian refugees involved on-site visits to 22 intensive programs in eight metropolitan areas: San Diego, Seattle, Minneapolis/St. Paul, New Orleans, Oklahoma City, Northern Virginia/Washington, DC, and Stockton, California. Programs represented a wide range of refugee resettlement contexts and approaches to providing English training. Data gathering included informal interviews with administrators, faculty, staff, and students; direct classroom observation; and household surveys in Southeast Asian communities in four of the metropolitan areas. The study's findings are both summarized and outlined in detail and cover the following topics: refugees' patterns of English acquisition; the composite refugee English classroom; teacher behavior in those classrooms; student classroom behavior; measuring student success; variables affecting student use of English; and relationships between teacher behavior and student use of English in the classroom. Numerous data tables are included, and data collection instruments and methodological notes are appended. (MSE)

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A STUDY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING FOR REFUGEES IN THE UNITED STATES

Phase II:
Classroom Observation and Community Survey

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U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
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FL015103

A STUDY OF THE EXTENT AND EFFECT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING FOR REFUGEES

PHASE II:

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION AND COMMUNITY SURVEY

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April 1984

Prepared For

The Department of Health and Human Services

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The material presented herein was developed by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory under Contract Number HHS-100-81-0066 with the United States Department of Health and Human Services. The opinions expressed in this document do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of Health and Human Services and no official endorsement by the Department should be inferred.

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PREFACE

English language proficiency has long been considered to be a crucially important component of effective refugee resettlement. Both resettlement agencies and refugees themselves identify lack of English as a major barrier to successful resettlement. The need for refugees arriving in the U.S. to use English is pervasive and immediate, reaching into every aspect of resettlement from social adjustment to employment; problems in learning English have become a metaphor for the myriad difficulties refugees face in the United States, so much so that refugees commonly say that the largest obstacle they face in the United States is "English."

The purpose of the Study of the Extent and Effect of English Language Training for Refugees (SRELT) project has been to investigate the language learning experience of recently arrived Southeast Asian adult refugees, particularly those with little previous education or exposure to Western culture, and to determine the factors which contribute most to their successful English acquisition. Although the project has focused primarily on federally-funded English language training programs, other factors affecting acquisition were also considered, particularly those related to the pre-entry and current resettlement experiences of refugees. Because refugees bring a wide range of life and language experiences with them to the classroom, analysis of the broader language acquisition context provides a more meaningful perspective from which to view the extent, nature, and effectiveness of English language training programs throughout the country.

The SRELT project was funded by a contract from the U.S. Office of Refugee Resettlement. Data was collected between October 1981 and June 1983. The Study was comprised of three phases, each of which used different methodologies and collected different kinds of information.

In Phase I of the Study, mail surveys were conducted to gather information on the extent, nature, cost and effect of English language training for adult refugees in programs being funded by ORR. Three types of questionnaires were mailed out: (1) a regional questionnaire sent to directors of the Regional Offices of ORR; (2) a state questionnaire sent to state coordinators; and (3) a local questionnaire mailed to 327 direct service providers receiving ORR funds for providing English language training to refugees during FFY 1981 and FFY 1982. The response rates to the surveys was over 70%.

During Phase II of the Study, intensive on-site program visits were carried out in eight selected metropolitan areas: San Diego, Seattle, Denver, Minneapolis/St. Paul, New Orleans, Oklahoma City, Northern Virginia/Washington DC and Stockton, California. These cities were selected to encompass a wide range of resettlement contexts and approaches to providing English language training to Southeast Asian refugees. Up to four ORR-funded programs operating in a given site were visited, as well as other selected programs serving large numbers of Southeast Asians. In all, 22 programs were visited during the Spring of 1982

Program visits included several types of data collection: Informal dicussions were held with 32 program administrators, over 100 randomly selected teachers, over 400 randomly selected students and with bilingual staff. The primary focus of the visits, however, was on direct classroom observation, to see and document what was actually happening in the classrooms, rather than relying only on questionnaires and interviews. The design instrumentation for the classroom observations were carefully developed, so that in principle, one could isolate the effects of teacher, program and student characteristics on classroom events. In all, over 300 hours of structured, detailed observation were carried out in more than 120 classrooms.

An additional component of the Phase II work consisted of household surveys of local Southeast Asian refugee communities in four of the eight cities in which programs were visited. Randomly sampled Vietnamese, Cambodian and Hmong households were interviewed--400 households in all. These community surveys were designed to provide background information about the target population for English language training, their utilization of English language training programs, and their acquisition of English. Statistical analyses of survey data were carried out to determine the extent of service utilization by different segments of the target population and to identify factors which impact service utilization and acquisition of English.

The final component of the project, Phase III, involved a longitudinal study or tracking of a group of recently arrived Southeast Asian adult refugees. A cohort of 400 recently arrived Southeast Asian adults was selected at random from the reception lists of voluntary agencies in four cities: Portland, Oregon; San Diego; Oklahoma City; and Denver. Individuals were given a standardized oral interview test of English proficiency at two points in time: early in their resettlement and then again about six months later. Demographic information about the participants as well as their histories of English language training and employment were also collected. The Longitudinal Study was designed to examine the relative effects of early employment versus early language training on refugees' initial acquisition of English.

A series of reports has been prepared to describe the methods, findings and recommendations of this Study. A summary Public Report and a technical report for each of the three phases of the Study are available through the Educational Resource and Information Clearinghouse (ERIC) and through the Refugee Materials Center, U.S. Department of Education, Region VII, 324 Eleventh Street, Ninth Floor, Kansas City, Missouri 64106.

This Study was carried out as a team effort by the Literacy and Language Program at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Key staff included:

Stephen Reder, Project Director

> Lead role in the overall design of the Study, in developing the methodology for Phase II, the methodology for Phase III and analysis of Community Survey data. Assisted with program visits and analysis of classroom observation and Longitudinal Study data.

Mary Cohn, Phase II Coordinator

Lead role in planning, conducting, analyzing and writing up the program visits and classroom observations. Assisted with interpretation of Phase I and III data.

Judith Arter, Phase III Coordinator

Lead role in planning, conducting, analyzing and writing up the Phase III Longitudinal Study and analyzing the Phase I data. Assisted with Phase II program visits.

Steven Nelson, Phase I Coordinator

Lead role in planning, implementing, and writing up the Phase I Mail Survey. Assisted with program visits in Phase II.

Randy Nelson

Conducted data analysis of the Phase II classroom observation data.

William Hadley

Assisted with conducting the Phase III Longitudinal Study and with the write-up of Phase I.

Rosalind Hamar, Lucinda Wong and Karen Green

Assisted with program visits in Phase II.

Susie Barfield

Responsible for support services and material production as well as assisting with project management.

The staff would like to acknowledge the many individuals and programs whose cooperation and assistance were invaluable to the Study. First are several groups which are so large that we cannot name all of their members:

- the hundreds of program administrators who took precious hours away from already pressing schedules to complete the mail survey questionnaires;
- the four hundred families who allowed us to come into their homes to complete the community surveys in the Minneapolis/St. Paul, Denver, Stockton, and Seattle areas;
- the teachers and students in the 120 classrooms who allowed us to come in and observe their classes on several occasions;
- the numerous refugees who participated in the standardized testing during the Longitudinal Study in Portland, Denver, San Diego and Oklahoma City;

- the many part-time bilingual staff who assisted us in conducting the program visits and community surveys in Seattle, Stockton, San Diego, Denver, New Orleans, Minneapolis/St. Paul, Oklahoma City and Arlington County, Virginia.

In addition to these many important but unnamed individuals, a number of individuals and organizations who played an important role in this Study must be added. They are:

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Sister Ann Wisda & Margaret Barnett
Catholic Social Ministries, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Kathleen Lowry
International Rescue Committee, Portland, Oregon

Father John Nghi & Father Vincent Minh
Southeast Asian Vicariate, Portland, Oregon

And finally, Allan Gall of the U.S. Office of Refugee Resettlement, who provided continual advice, support and encouragement to staff throughout the Study.

To all of those who helped the Study, thank you very much. Despite all of this help, errors were no doubt made. If so, they are the responsibility of the authors alone.

We hope that future refugees who come to the United States will somehow benefit from these efforts as they go about learning English.

I

OVERVIEW

Purpose and Approach

The purpose of Phase II of the Study of Refugee English Language Training is to describe the range and extent of English language training for Southeast Asian refugees, particularly those recently arrived refugees with little educational background or experience, to examine factors contributing to refugee language acquisition, and to outline the effects of programs and instructional characteristics.

These issues are addressed through analyses of three kinds of data collected: Direct classroom observations; informal discussions with program staff and participants; and the community survey, which profiles the demographic and language acquisition characteristics of the Southeast Asian refugees living in the service areas of the English language training programs studied. The purpose of the program visits was to observe and describe the actual workings of particular English language training programs for refugees: who is being taught, what is being taught, how English is taught, and what characteristics of programs and classrooms appear to be relatively successful. The surveys furnish a means for looking at the complex interrelationships among utilization of English language training, refugees' background characteristics, and the acquisition of English and adjustment to American life.

Cities for site visits were chosen to represent a broad range of resettlement contexts. Factors considered in selection included economic and demographic characteristics, welfare and other social service policies, numbers and ethnic mix of refugees in the area, and number and types of

English language training programs available. In each locale, project staff typically visited two to four programs.

The program visits included highly structured observations of six different classes, each observed in three sessions. Because of the study's focus on refugees with limited educational experience, classes from the two lowest instructional levels of each program were observed. Classes from the second highest level in the program were also observed. In addition to the classroom observations, site visits included discussions with an average of four students from each observed class, teachers of each class observed, and bilingual personnel and program administrators from each program.

Community survey sites (Twin Cities, Seattle, Denver, and Stockton) were selected from the eight cities based on estimated size of the target group in the area, differing economic and welfare conditions, and the feasibility of conducting the interviews; such factors as availability of bilingual interviewers and the geographical distribution of target households were considered. In each community survey site, bilingual interviewers conducted the surveys in Vietnamese, Cambodian and Hmong homes. A total of about 100 eligible households were randomly chosen for interviews in each city. The number of households interviewed in each ethnic group was approximately equal to their proportion in the refugee population of the area. To be eligible for the survey, a household had to have lived in the local area at least one year and in the U.S. no more than three years.

The findings of the Phase II study presented in this document are based on over 300 hours of classroom observation in 132 classes, discussions with 423 students and 139 teachers, 17 bilingual aides and 32 administrators from the 22 visited programs, as well as survey data from 421 refugee households comprising 948 individual adults.

Study Findings

Refugees' Acquisition of English

Southeast Asian adult refugees who have come to the United States display diverse backgrounds and wide variations in English proficiency at entry. Using self-ratings of English proficiency, the community survey of adult refugees entering the United States between mid 1979 and mid 1981 shows that only 20% had at least "survival"-level English skills, and only 10% were sufficiently proficient in English to look for work on their own during their first month in the United States. Such proficiency at entry was concentrated among certain segments of the refugee population—men; younger adults; the relatively educated; those literate in their native language; those who had previously learned a second language (other than English); and among those who had previously taken ESL, either in their country of origin or in a refugee camp.

Refugees' English proficiency increases as their resettlement progresses. Among those surveyed who had been in the country 1-3 years, two-thirds (66%) reported having attained at least survival-level proficiency, and more than a third (37%) reported having sufficient proficiency for independent job search. These gains in proficiency are not uniformly observed across the adult refugee population: Previous education, native language literacy, ESL and/or work experience in the United States are all associated with attainment of higher proficiency levels as resettlement progresses. Cutting across all of these effects are the persistent effects of age on English acquisition, with proficiency decreasing systematically with increasing age across the lifespan.

Refugees' Utilization of ESL

Southeast Asian refugees resettling in the United States have taken ESL in various combinations of settings: In the country of origin (usually as part of formal schooling), in camp programs, and in programs in the United States. Only a small fraction of refugees received English language training (ELT) in their native countries. Until relatively recently, the same was true of ELT offered in the refugee camps. Several years ago, only a small minority of refugees received any English language training in the camps. The Community Survey shows that only 10% of the refugees who arrived in the United States between mid 1979 and mid 1981, for example, reported receiving any ELT in camp. The few who did attend camp programs in those years tended to be those who had taken ELT before in their country of origin—young, literate and educated men. In this way one could say the camp programs appeared at that time to be extensions of the educational systems of Southeast Asia.

In the United States, meanwhile, ELT had assumed the role of a massive intervention program. According to the Community Survey, three-fourths of the refugees entering the United States in the two-year period between mid 1979 and mid 1981 had participated in ELT in this country by mid 1982. Almost all refugees who do participate in ELT here initiate participation during their first year of residence, with diminishing rates of utilization appearing as resettlement progresses. As English proficiency levels rise and as employment rates for refugees increase, ELT participation rates decline. Individuals who have taken ELT in the United States have averaged roughly 700 hours of training during their first three years in the country.

Impact of ESL on English Aquisition

Service providers estimate instructional costs in their ELT programs typically to be about $2 per student per hour (although the figure varies widely), from which ELT provision costs can be reckoned to be in the range of $1,000 - $2,000 per refugee during the first three years. Since some adults learn second languages without formal training at all, it is important to examine the impact which this service has on the refugee's development of English proficiency.

The Community Survey assessed the impact of ELT utilization on acquisition of the language; it collected self-reported measures of English proficiency from a large sample of refugees who had been in the United States from one to three years, together with information about their demographic characteristics, previous education and literacy, and their employment and ELT histories.

Demographic variables--such as age--and pre-entry experiences--such as education in the country of origin, native language literacy, and previous bilingualism--are the primary determinants of English acquisition. These factors alone account for a great deal of the observed variation among individual adult refugees' acquisition of the language. The effects of post-entry experiences--such as employment and ELT--pale in comparison with these more potent factors. This is NOT to say that ELT is unimportant: Only after the effects of these powerful demographic variables and pre-entry experiences are controlled can the effects of ELT programs be clearly seen.

Among respondents of the Community Survey, ELT does have demonstrable positive effects on English acquisition. Employment, too, is positively related to the development of English proficiency, but the effects are not as strong as those of ELT, especially in the first year or so of resettlement.

Although ELT taken in the camps has a clear effect on refugees' initial levels of English proficiency, ELT provided in the United States appears to have a stronger effect on proficiency levels attained later in resettlement.

The Refugee ELT Classroom--A Composite Picture

Although one conclusion of the classroom observations in over 100 different classrooms is that there is in fact no "typical" refugee ELT class, it is possible to describe the range and variation of the classes observed. Classes ranged in size from 2 to 34 students, with the average student:teacher ratio at 13.4, and ranged in length from one to four hours.

A group snapshot of refugee students in English programs at the time of observations, Spring 1982, shows slightly more males (58%) than females, about two-thirds of the students under the age of 34, and only about one in nine over 45. There is a mix of ethnic groups--most classes contain more than one ethnic group. One in five students in classes observed had no previous literacy skills, and over half of the students had less than a grade school education. In about one-third of the classes, literate and non-literate students are mixed together to some extent.

As the results of the Community Survey might predict, observations show proportionately more men and younger students in higher level classes and proportionately more women and older students in lower level classes.

Teacher Behavior--What Happens in ELT Classrooms

Analyses of classroom observations show that a wide range of teaching approaches, methodologies and techniques are used in refugee ELT; there is no "one approach" for teaching refugees English. In fact, almost every type of ESL methodology or approach was observed across programs, from a very strict grammar/translation, rote-learning approach in use in a refugee-run program in Minnesota, to Silent Way in Washington, DC, and Suggestopedia in Washington State. Overall, however, the most typical approach to refugee ELT is somewhat eclectic, combining structural approaches (what might be thought of as traditional "language lessons", focussing on specific grammar points, vocabulary, etc.) with some incorporation of more integrated lessons using situational or notional/functional approaches. In general, structural type lessons are correlated more with lower level classes and notional/functional more with higher level classes.

Teachers spend a substantial portion of class time (about 50%) teaching survival, cultural orientation, or pre-employment skills; this instruction is usually incorporated into the English language lesson. The overwhelming majority of classes, in fact, are taught in English and English only. Less than one in ten teachers observed was bilingual, and bilingual aides were observed in only one in ten classes.

Teachers in refugee classrooms use many kinds of activities. The most common activity observed is one defined for the purpose of data recording as "recitation"--that is structured, teacher-directed question-answer or drill activity in which explicit answers are expected. This kind of activity was used over half the time in over half of the classes observed. Besides recitation, activites are distributed over a wide range; a pattern which emerges, however, is that teachers tend to direct activities more often toward student/teacher interactions (question/answer, listening, teacher/student role play, etc.) than student/student interaction or individual seatwork; which further analyses indicate that the pattern might affect how students use English in class.

Although the greatest emphasis in the refugee English classroom is on spoken English, the use of literacy constitutes a very important element in classroom instruction. In fact, in over 70% of classes observed, teachers presented English in written form at least some of the time. Literacy is used to instruct both reading and writing and oral English. Most materials in use in the classroom are in fact written materials of some kind, although drawings and photos, and "realia" or real objects are seen occasionally, particularly at the lower levels of instruction. Technological teaching aids such as audio or video tapes are rarely used. The most common materials in use are in order, blackboards, books and worksheets.

The finding that literacy figures so strongly into instruction is especially important when combined with the findings of the community survey that education and literacy are strong factors in English acquisition. Further analyses of classroom observation and discussion with teachers show that teachers do take the literacy ability of their students into account to some extent when they teach; for example they use more drawings and photos, real objects, and require more "physical response" in classes containing proportionately more students with low literacy skills. However, one-fifth of the students in classes observed were not literate and one-fourth to one-third of classes mix nonliterate and literate students together. Unless literacy is carefully taken into account in class placement, it appears that many nonliterate students may find those portions of classroom instruction which assume prior literacy simply inaccessible.

An important overall conclusion of classroom observations is that in class both teachers and students are overwhelmingly "on-task", focussed directly on teaching or learning English. There is very little wasted time in refugee English language classes, for example, out of an hour of instruction, teachers spend an average of 58 minutes in instructional activities. Students are generally paying attention participating in instruction to a similarly high degree.

Student Behavior--What Students are Doing in Classrooms

The most common student behavior observed in classes was coded as "other on-task"--generally listening, following directions or paying attention in some way, but not speaking, reading or writing. When students do speak in class, they usually use English, although they tend to speak to other students more often in their native languages, and to the teacher more often in English than in the native language. Students were observed actually speaking English only one-tenth of the observation time, or about six and one-half minutes per hour. Student behaviors involving the use of literacy--reading silently, aloud or writing--comprise a much greater portion of their time in class than does speaking: For approximately one-quarter of class time, students are engaged in some activity involving literacy.

In summary, in decreasing order of time spent, students in classrooms are listening, reading, writing, and last of all speaking English, implying that the primary students activities are passive and literate.

Measuring Student Success in Classrooms

One of the crucial questions addressed by this study is one that remains extremely difficult to answer. That is "What works in English classes for adult refugees"? In other words, what can teachers do to encourage students to speak, read, write, understand English and make continued progress over time in improved competence? One of the constraints of Phase II of the SRELT study is that observations could only be made of students in classes over a very short period of time--really just a snapshot. There was no way of knowing beforehand how what was observed in class was related to "learning" over time. However, previous research and observations pointed out a few dependent variables by which to measure student outcomes which are observable in class.

The first of these, "time on-task" (which as mentioned above is consistently high in refugee classrooms), was chosen since "time on-task" has been demonstrated in previous research to be correlated to learning in children's classrooms and among adults in lower level basic skills classes. The second set of dependent variables chosen was student speech patterns--close observations were kept on a randomly-chosen group of individuals in the class, and then for the class as a whole, how much they spoke, what language, and under what circumstances. These variables were chosen based on an extensive literature review of research in ESL. Another reason in choosing these types of speech activities as variables is that they probably most clearly reflect use of English outside the classroom in the "real world" context. The dependent variable emerged as most informative was one defined operationally as "spontaneous" and "elaborated" speech patterns--instances in which English speech was used in the classroom by students on their own initiative--for example, as a way of communicating in a spontaneous way not expressly directed by the teacher, or elaborating on a response requested by the teacher.

Discussions with over 400 students did later reveal that students' use of English in classroom was for many the only time they used English at all--fully one-third of the students said they never speak English outside of class. But in those classrooms where more student-initiated spontaneous and elaborated speech was noted, proportionately more students said they spoke

Engliside of class; this is not necessarily a causal relationship, but it isdication that patterns of English speech in classrooms might refle outside of class.

G most students' speech acts in the classroom are directed toward the t however, spontaneous, self-initiated "speaking up" in English is sligh e often addressed to *other students*. This observation, together with ions from student discussions that students frequently ask native Englikers for help with schoolwork, suggest that social interaction pattengst students may be important to consider when analyzing language use auage learning in classrooms.

Classriables Affecting Student Use of English

Actors consistently emerge as significantly affecting student spontand elaborated speech in class. First, as class proficiency level changnges can be seen in student speech patterns. Students at lower levelheir native language in class more than students at higher levels, whereents at higher proficiency levels engage in a higher level and amounlk in English. Higher level students speak "spontaneously" to the teachwhat more often than other students, but *overall* spontaneous and elabopeech is not significantly higher than for lower levels, suggenat proficiency alone is not the only factor at work in whether studeak in class on their own initiative.

Sclass size also consistently emerges as correlated to the amount of stpontaneous and elaborated speech--as classes get smaller, a much greatience per student of overall spontaneous and elaborated speech occurs pattern remains in effect even when the effects of class

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proficiency level are controlled. The smaller the class, the more students speak English on their own.

Third, ethnic mix also appears to be a factor in speech use, though its effects are not as strong as class size. In classes with more ethnic groups, teachers use less of the native language, and focus more on student/student interactive activities than in classes with fewer groups. In classes with more ethnic groups, more elaborated English response was observed.

Regression analyses of data collected during classroom observations show that factors measured which predict that most variation in student behavior in classrooms are previous background and experiential factors, the strongest predictors being previous education of students. After education, class size is the strongest classroom context variable predicting overall student behaviors involving speech, and by far the strongest predictor of spontaneous speech in class. Percent male in class also predicts student behaviors, and weaker but still significant predictors are age and literacy of students in class. The length of time students have been in the United States does not enter as a significant predictor of in-class student behavior.

Relationships Between Teacher Behaviors and Students' Use of English in Class

Because of the correlation between student background characteristics and student behavior in classrooms and the wide variety of approaches and teaching techniques in use in the refugee classroom, it is not possible to say what works best for all students; in fact, the importance of individual learning differences strongly suggest that different teacher behaviors may affect students of varying backgrounds in various ways. Ultimately, therefore, measures such as those outlined above must be weighed against the goals of individual students, teachers and programs. If we assume, however, that increased spontaneous use of English is a desired and appropriate outcome, we can identify some teacher approaches that appear to influence use of spoken English in classrooms.

Although much of the variation in class behavior can be accounted for statistically by background and context factors beyond the direct control of classroom teachers, if class size and class level are held constant, student-generated speech is associated with the teachers use of natural colloquial speech style, classroom discussions and conversations, unstructured targeting approach and with the teacher being on-task, student/teacher role playing activities, and other student/student interaction. These patterns point to the apparent effectiveness of interactive activities in encouraging students to use English on their own.

Classrooms with more experienced teachers showed a relatively higher percentage of student use of self-initiated English. Of the teacher behaviors recorded during observations, it was found that one way in which more experience teachers differ from less experienced teachers is in their decreased use of "recitation" or structured drill type activities. If the teacher use of recitation is held statistically constant, the differences in student spontaneous and elaborated speech elicited disappear, evidence that one way more experienced teachers have found to encourage students to use English is to decrease the amount of recitation activities and increase other types of activities.

Further analyses of observation data, together with administrative interviews also point to the importance of teacher style in increasing student participation and learning. Teacher and administrative discussions also suggest that factors not directly measureable by the classroom observations conducted in this study also influence acquisition of English. These include affective factors such as student and teacher motivation, attitude and student study patterns at home and contacts with English speakers outside the classroom. These variables could not be quantified in the same way as classroom observation data. These factors need to be explored in further research.

Organization of Report

The remainder of this report is organized as follows:

Chapter II, Methodology, outlines study methods and approach.

Chapter III, Classroom Observation, explains the approach to observation results of classroom observations, followed by details of specific findings.

Chapter IV, Findings of On-Site Discussions, presents the information learned from discussions with students, teachers, bilingual aides, and administrators in 22 programs visited.

Chapter V, Community Survey Results, discusses in depth the analyses of Phase II community survey results from four cities.

These substantive chapters are followed by appendices which contain copies of data collection instruments and discussion guidelines, and additional details of definitions, data gathering and analysis procedures used in conducting classroom observations.

II

METHODS AND INSTRUMENTATION

Introduction

The purpose of Phase II was to describe the extent and nature, and effects of English language training for Southeast Asian adult refugees, and to identify factors associated with successful training. The research plan for Phase II included use of three sets of data designed to provide a broad perspective for reviewing classroom training for Southeast Asian refugees. The data thus collected combines information on the resettlement context and background characteristics of the target population; the viewpoints of both ELT service providers and recipients and extensive direct observation of classroom practices and outcomes. The three data sets will be analyzed in chapters which follow:

1. Classroom observations (132 classes in 22 programs in 8 communities)
2. Face-to-face discussions with program participants, teachers and administrators (22 programs in 8 communities)
3. Household survey of refugee families (100 households were sampled in each of four community survey sites)

Classroom Observation. First-hand information was needed on what actually happens in classrooms. In the programs visited, staff observed numerous classrooms in session. These classroom observations provided detailed information about student and teacher behaviors in the classroom and contextual factors in the classroom. The observations were conducted using a set of objective instruments. Details of the design of the instrument and the results of classroom observations are presented in Appendix III-A and Chapter III of this report, respectively.

On-site Discussions. To further inform the classroom observations, discussions were held with students and teachers from the classrooms observed, and with bilingual staff and program administrators. These discussions were informal and usually brief. Project staff followed discussion guidelines to assure comparability of data across sites and among field researchers. Results of these discussions are presented in Chapter IV.

Community Surveys. Data collection at program sites was supplemented by household surveys in four cities. These in-home surveys were undertaken to provide a profile of the Southeast Asian refugees being served by various ELT programs in the selected cities, as well as those not attending programs. The randomly sampled households interviewed provided a picture of the overall demographics and pre-entry educational experiences of refugee populations in the area and the impact of these factors, ELT training and work experience on acquisition of English. Details of the design and results of the Community Survey are presented in Chapter V of this report.

Site Selection. Although the initial research plan had called for observation of only "successful" ELT programs, no consensus emerged as to what criteria should be reliably used for identifying such programs. It thus became necessary to use a site selection procedure that did not depend on idiosyncratic or individual judgments of success. Rather than attempt to identify "successful" programs in advance, and then observe how their characteristics relate to features of the resettlement contexts in which they operate (e.g., economic and demographic variables), contrastive resettlement contexts were identified in advance. Prospective programs were then selected so that a range of contextual factors thought to affect program participation or language acquisition would be represented. These factors included employment rates, welfare rates, degree of refugee impact on the locale, program availability and type and potential ethnic mix in classes.

Preliminary data were collected on 22 prospective settings having significant Southeast Asian refugee settlements. Most major cities having large numbers of the target population for Phase II of the study--recently arrived, little-educated Southeast Asian refugees--were included for consideration. A mix of medium and large metropolitan areas across the country was included, as well as four smaller cities. Both cities in the most heavily impacted states as ones in states which are not as heavily impacted were considered. Areas with different economic and employment situations were included for consideration, as well as areas characterized by distinct policies for public assistance to refugees.

These preliminary background data provided high-level contrasts among resettlement contexts and program characteristics in prospective settings. The gross resettlement context was specified by several economic and demographic variables. For specifying program types, a major distinction was made between ORR-funded programs offering only English language training and those integrating English language training with other social services.

The following data was collected for each of the 22 metropolitan areas:

1. Demographic Context

   a. total population
   b. estimated Southeast Asian refugee population
   c. estimated percent of Southeast Asian refugees arriving in last two years
   d. ethnic mix of Southeast Asian refugees

2. Economic Context

   a. unemployment rate as of November 1981
   b. welfare grant amounts
   c. welfare eligibility requirements

3. Language Training Context

a. number of ORR-funded English language training programs in area
b. number of ORR-funded agencies providing only English language training
c. number of ORR-funded agencies providing both English language training and other services

Using these data, potential locales were categorized according to several key contextual and programmatic variables: city size, level of refugee impact, ethnic mix, welfare rates and eligibility requirements, unemployment rates, and number and types of English language training programs available. Grids were generated, comparing prospective cities in these terms. In consultation with ORR, these grids were used to select a set of eight communities representing various English language training contexts, geographical regions and ethnic mix of Southeast Asian refugees being served. Four community survey sites were selected from these eight communities.

Table II-1 lists the eight metropolitan areas chosen for site visits, and shows some of the characteristics used for comparison and selection.

Selecting Programs

After notifying state and regional agencies involved, staff contacted ELT program administrators to clarify the purpose of the proposed site visits, request that visits be made, discuss any concerns of program personnel. After programs consented to the visits, if possible, selection of three programs within each city was made. In some cities, where many programs were in operation, it was not possible to conduct classroom observations and visit all programs. If a city had many programs (such as Twin Cities and Seattle), first priority was given to ORR-funded programs serving recently arrived refugees. If there were many such programs, a choice was made to represent a mix of ethnic groups served and a mix of institutional types or program emphases. In cities where the major programs serving refugees were not ORR-funded, these programs were visited if possible. Altogether, 22 programs were selected for visits in eight cities, as displayed in Table II-1.

Table II-1

CITIES SELECTED--CONTEXT

City	Refugee* Impact (as of 12/81)	Unemployment* (as of 11/81 U.S. Dept. Labor Stat.)	Welfare* Rates (as of 12/81)	Total Area Population (High=SMSA 1,000,000 or more)
Oklahoma City	Less than 9% total pop.	Less than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
San Diego	Greater than 9% total pop.	Greater than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
No. Virginia/DC	Greater than 9% total pop.	Less than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
New Orleans	Less than 9% total pop.	Greater than 7%	Under $100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
Minneapolis/** St. Paul	Greater than 9% total pop.	Less than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
Denver**	Less than 9% total pop.	Less than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High
Stockton	Greater than 9% total pop.	Greater than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	Low
Seattle**	Greater than 9% total pop.	Greater than 7%	$100 or more per person/mo. family 4	High

*Cut-offs for unemployment rates, impact and welfare were arbitrary and used only for comparing cities across different contexts.
**Community survey sites.

Selecting Classes

Within each program visited, the study design called for observing each of six selected classes three times. Each classroom observation was approximately an hour in length, so that a total of 18 hours of classroom observation was conducted in each of the 22 programs. The six classes observed, wherever possible, were selected in matched pairs, two classes from each of three levels (as defined by the programs) of instruction. Because the study focus was on recently arrived refugees with little prior education, two of the three levels (four classes) were selected from the first two levels defined by the program and one level (two classes) from the next-to-highest instructional level within the program. At each selected level, the classes were chosen at random from schedules provided by the program. In some cases, two classes of equivalent level were not available, and the next closest level class was chosen. In a few programs, fewer than six classes were observed due to conflicts of scheduling or the small number of classes offered.

Each class was observed for one hour on each of three different days, so that the influence of such factors as ethnic holidays, substitute teachers, unusual attendance, etc., could be minimized. All classes were observed using identical recording instruments and procedures, described in detail in Chapter III and Appendix III-A. The staff held discussions with all teachers of classrooms, and selection of students for discussion was made randomly from class lists in the classrooms observed.

The "Leveler"

Since ELT is not generally organized into proficiency levels which are standardized across programs, the three different levels observed (two lower, one upper) were not necessarily equivalent across programs. For example, the highest level in one small program serving preliterates was less advanced than the highest level observed in a larger community college based program. To facilitate cross-program comparisons and referencing of classroom behavior to instructional level, an objective gauge of class "level" was needed.

Since individual testing was precluded in this phase of the study, a brief class exercise was developed and administered once to each class at the end of the third and final observation hour. The exercise was a teacher-led question-and-answer activity. A list of "everyday" questions of varying difficulty was designed (see Appendix III-C). The questions were randomly ordered for each class, and teachers asked one question of each student, moving sequentially through the room. The observer scored responses and these data were used to construct a scale of four equally-divided class levels across programs. Appendix III-B describes how student responses were coded, and how the synthetic "level" was created. The "leveler" data are used throughout this report to categorize classes observed into rough proficiency levels for comparative analysis.

Table II-2 below shows the relationship between levels as defined by the programs (1 being lowest, 3 being highest) and leveler response rates, grouped into four ranges. Leveler data was collected on a total of 121 classes. For the remainder of this report, instructional or class "level" refers to class divisions by the researchers' leveler response rate.

Table II-2

PROGRAM CLASS LEVEL BY REPORT LEVEL
(% OF CLASSES OBSERVED)

	Leveler Response--Report "Level"				
Original Program "Levels	1	2	3	4	All Classes
1	15.7	9.9	5.8	4.1	35.5
2	7.4	9.1	10.7	5.8	33.1
3	1.7	5.0	9.9	14.9	31.4
All Program Levels	24.8	24.0	26.4	24.8	100.0

III

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Classroom observation comprised the largest part of the Phase II program visits. This chapter presents the design of the classroom observations, and the results of these observations. Detailed procedures for observation, working definitions, copies of the observation instruments, and a summary of data analysis techniques are presented in Appendices III-A to III-E.

The chapter is divided into four sections, organized as follows:

1. Purpose
2. Design
3. Overview of Classroom Observation Findings
4. Results
    A. Classroom and student characteristics
    B. Teacher behavior
    C. Student behavior
    D. Factors in variation of student and teacher behavior
    E. Relationship between teaching practices and student behavior

Purpose

The goals of the classroom observation were both to catalog the range and variation in approaches to English language training for refugees and the apparent outcomes of this training, and to investigate the far more difficult and controversial question about classrooms: "What works in English classes for Southeast Asian refugees?" Answering this question involved finding the relationship between the kinds of training in different classrooms observed, and the [illegible] observed.

To ascertain the nature and variety of language training available for refugees, it is necessary to describe what actually happens in the classroom--that is, who is being taught, what they are being taught, how they are being taught, and what students are doing in class. Obtaining a valid description of what students experience in class requires the immediacy of on-site observations in actual classrooms, using data gathering procedures and tools which would be consistent across many different kinds of programs and levels and types of classes. The observations resulted in an overall description of classrooms, and an account of how teaching content, approaches and methods, and student behaviors vary according to differing classroom contexts, levels of instruction and characteristics of students.

The second goal of classroom observation, identifying how student outcomes are related to specific features of English training, is more problematic. First, there is a wide divergence of opinion as to what constitutes "success" in language learning for refugees, and how that success is to be measured. Some measure success by program completion, others by attainment of certain competency levels, others by whether students gain employment or reach self-sufficiency. Second, successful language learning, however defined, can not necessarily be observed at any one time point since learning implies a steady progress in acquisition and use of the language; classroom observation cannot capture this progress in class visits over two or three days. Therefore, the outcome measures or student behaviors observed in class need to be as closely related as possible to language behavior outside class, or they need to be closely identified with progress through proficiency levels.

Design of the Observation Instrument

The classroom observation was intended to focus on those classroom features and teacher and student behaviors most likely to be related to language learning. To inform the design of the classroom observation instrument and to achieve the desired focus, a literature search was conducted, and ESL and educational experts were also consulted. Because of the scant empirical research available on classroom behavior in the adult second language training, especially for populations similar to recently arrived Southeast Asian refugees, the design was also based on research in second language acquisition, bilingual education and classroom evaluation.

Time on Task or Allocated Learning Time

The single variable that appears most often in educational research to be related to student achievement in class is time on task or allocated learning time (Fisher, et al., 1980). Time on task can be defined as the amount of time in class that students devote directly to learning activities, rather than activities such as socializing, passing out papers, taking attendance, daydreaming, etc. In designing the classroom observations, then, it was assumed that the more time on task behavior seen in class, the more likely students might be to be learning English, and that time on task might be used as one of the desired outcome measures in the study of classroom process.

Interaction Patterns

To distinguish on-task vs. off-task behavior, the observers must know what behaviors are related to language learning. Current theory and research indicates that student interaction may make a difference in achievement of second language skills for low level students and language learning (Seliger & Guingras, 1976; Seliger, 1977) such as the study's target population. The observation instrument therefore recorded students' interaction patterns--whether they were interacting with others, and with whom they were interacting. For newly arrived refugees who have little contact with English speakers outside of class, these interactions may constitute the primary social context for using English.

Languages Used

In the English classes, students' speech is not always in English, but sometimes in the native language (L_1). The incidence of L_1 was therefore recorded as another contextual feature of student interaction. It was not assumed either in the observations or the analysis that speaking L_1 necessarily constitutes off-task behavior, but its use needed to be documented to get a complete picture of possible learning strategies and patterns.

Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech

Research on second language acquisition also suggests that certain speech behaviors in L_2 reflect successful language learning, particularly a student's self-generated or "spontaneous" production of L_2 (Krashen, 1976). It was therefore decided to track instances of students' spontaneous use of English in the classroom. Another speech pattern, labeled here "elaborated" speech, was also distinguished. Elaborated speech was defined as speaking English in a lengthy or complex way, such as expanding on what someone else in the class has said.

Literacy

Spoken English is not the only language behavior observable in classrooms. Reading and writing skills are both taught explicitly and used as tools for teaching and learning. Previous research indicates that literacy is an important factor in acquisition of English and use by Southeast Asian adult refugees (Reder, 1981, Reder and Green, 1983). The observation instrument therefore recorded student and teacher use of reading and writing in the classroom.

Methodological Constraints

Although motivation and other social and affective factors are often mentioned as being related to second language acquisition, these variables are difficult to observe reliably in classrooms, though some of the behavior resulting from such motivators, such as spontaneous speech and willingness to ask questions or speak to other students in English, might be measured.

In summary, the student behaviors chosen to be measured in the classroom observations were language used, interaction patterns, use of spontaneous or elaborated speech, use of literacy, and overall on-task behavior. The detailed working definitions used by observers are contained in Appendix III-A. Besides tracking student behaviors, the classroom observations were designed to record the context in which the behaviors occurred. Therefore, classroom characteristics such as class size, and physical environment and teacher instructional practices were recorded during the observations.

A classroom observation context "checklist" was designed to record the range and variation of teaching practices for Southeast Asian refugees. The information recorded included both content of the lessons, and approach and techniques used by the teachers. A copy of the checklist and the working definitions for its use are included in Appendix III-A.

For purposes of the analyses which follow in this chapter, student behaviors were considered the dependent variables, and context factors were considered the independent variables. Our previous research had shown that student background characteristics such as age, sex, previous education and literacy are important variables in language behavior; therefore observations also noted the sex and approximate age of the students in the class. Estimates of other background characteristics were made from information provided by four randomly chosen students from each classroom with whom brief discussions were held after class--results of these discussions are presented in Chapter IV.

Each class chosen was observed on three different days, taking 40-50 minutes for each observation session. The observation instrument was broken into four sections:

(1) A "Context Checklist," which tracked classroom instructional practices, and such factors as presence of bilingual aides and the physical environment of the classroom;

(2) A "Classroom Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech" form, on which observers recorded instances of spontaneous and elaborated speech on a classroom seating chart;

(3) A Student Behavior Checklist. Five students were chosen at random from the seating chart in Section 2—actual behaviors were recorded for one minute intervals, two times for each student. These behaviors were broken down by (1) language spoken, (2) interaction pattern (with teacher or other student), (3) whether speech was directed by teacher or was spontaneous or elaborated, and (4) reading and writing behaviors. Off-task behavior was also noted; and then

(4) Checklist #1 was repeated.

All observations were identically timed using timing tapes, and all observers used identical procedures for conducting the observations. Additional details of procedures can be found in Appendix III-B.

Overview of Classroom Observation Findings

Observations of a large number of classes in many different types of ELT programs makes it possible to describe the general range and variation of instructional practices and student classroom behaviors in Southeast Asian refugee classrooms. Although various student behaviors are typical of certain English proficiency levels, it remains extremely difficult to say for certain which student behaviors observable in classrooms constitute outcome measures of successful learning.

Observation data shows that certain instructional approaches are associated with certain types of student behaviors. The backgrounds of all Southeast Asian refugee students are not alike, however, and what works for one student may not be successful for another. The results of the classroom observations as well as those of the Community Survey strongly suggest that student background characteristics have a great impact on language behavior in class and English acquisition in general. Because of the varying backgrounds and experiences students bring with them to class, no one instructional approach can be said to work best for all students. In fact, a good deal of the variation in student behavior observed in these classes can be accounted for statistically by factors outside the direct control of teachers, including student age, sex, education, literacy, class size and ethnic mix of students. Nevertheless, some student speech behaviors are highly correlated to instructional practices--whether these behaviors constitute measures of "success" depends on the particular English language training goals of the students, teachers, and programs concerned.

General Classroom Characteristics

Forty percent of refugee classes are held in the morning, another forty percent in the afternoon, and twenty percent in the evening. The shortest class length of classes is one hour, the longest four hours--the most typical class length is between two and three hours.

Observations show that in two-thirds of refugee ELT classrooms the physical environment is comfortable and appropriate, with no environmental detractors to instruction. In the remaining one-third of classes, there are some environmental detractors, the most common being overcrowded classrooms, high noise level, bad heating, dilapidated buildings, and presence of children in the classroom.

Classes range in size from under 5 to 34 students, with about half of the classes containing 10-20 students. The average class size is 13.4. These classes are both smaller than class sizes (student/teacher ratio) reported in the Phase I survey for programs nationwide, and smaller than the student/teacher ratio reported in the Phase I surveys in the particular programs observed. These differences in reported and observed size may be due to differences between enrollment figures and actual attendance, or to attrition occurring between the time of reporting and the time of observations, some of which took place toward the end of terms. The slightly higher reported estimates of attendance may skew estimates of cost per student hour, making the official cost appear lower than it actually may be.

Student and Teacher Characteristics

The students observed in Phase II program visits are fairly representative of refugees attending programs nationwide. Characteristics of these students were compared to data collected in SRELT Phase I national survey of local English language training programs for refugees. The students observed have about the same distribution between men and women as nationwide--with slightly more men attending classes than women--and approximately the same age distribution. Sixty-seven percent of students observed were under age 34, compared to 70% nationally. The slightly older population observed may be due to the class selection procedure (which selected two lower level classes, and one upper level class from each program); findings of the observations suggest that lower level classes tend to have older students.

Statistical analyses show that certain background characteristics of students tend to be highly correlated both to one another and to the proficiency level of the classes they attend. Classes at higher levels tend to contain younger students, more males, and students with more education. Lower level classes tend to contain students with less education and literacy, and more women and older students. Regression analyses show that the three student characteristics of sex, education and age alone predict almost half of the differences in classroom proficiency level. The length of time students have been in the United States is not statistically correlated to the level of the students' classes; "new" students apparently enter at all levels of instruction.

The ethnic distribution of Southeast Asian refugee students in classes visited is similar to the ethnic distribution of students attending programs nationwide, representing in order Vietnamese, Khmer, Lao, Hmong, Mien and Ethnic Chinese groups; slightly more Hmong, and slightly less ethnic Chinese are represented in classes observed. This difference is due to the fact that several of the cities visited had at the time a larger percentage of Hmong in the refugee population than in other impacted areas in the country. One-quarter of all the classes observed serve only one ethnic group, while the remaining 75% have two or more ethnic groups in the same class.

The literacy profile of the students observed is virtually identical with the national profile: Approximately 20% of the students observed are not literate in any language. The previous educational experience of students observed is approximately the same as the national average, though there are twice as many students in classes observed who had no previous education as students in programs nationwide, again probably due to the selection of lower level classes for observation. Thirty-one percent of students observed have had no previous education, and 61% have less than a sixth grade education.

Teacher Characteristics

The average experience of the group of teachers observed is a little over four years. Teachers have gained most of their experience in the programs in which they are presently teaching. On the average, these teachers well exceed the average minimum experience requirements listed for teachers in the Phase I survey. There are approximately twice as many female teachers as male teachers; teachers of both sexes and the entire range of experience teach at all instructional levels. Eight percent (14) of the teachers are bilingual--most observed bilingual teachers are men; bilingual teachers are present in all instructional levels.

Summary of Instructional Patterns

Although analyses of classroom observation data show that various aspects of teacher instructional patterns change to some extent with class size, level of classes, and characteristics of the students in them, general instructional patterns of refugee English language training programs can be outlined. (The section of this report titled Teacher Behavior presents the detailed results of the 20 teacher variables recorded.)

Teachers spend a substantial portion of class time (50%) teaching survival, cultural orientation, or pre-employment skills. This instruction is usually incorporated into the English language lesson, and is taught in English. Teachers spend 50% of class time on what might be regarded as a traditional "language" lesson--instruction in general grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, etc. There is no one instructional approach in use; in fact, teaching approaches ranging from traditional grammar-translation to notional/functional approaches can be found in English classes for Southeast Asian refugees. The most typical approach appears to be somewhat eclectic, combining structural approaches emphasizing discrete parts of language with instruction in more integrated skills of conversation and literacy.

In the overwhelming majority of classes (91.3%), English is the only language of instruction used by the teacher; few classes offer any form of translation into the native language. Only 8.1% of the teachers are bilingual; in just one in ten classes are bilingual aides observed, suggesting that although 42% of local English language service providers report that they use bilingual personnel (SRELT Phase I survey) as classroom aides, one bilingual staff person is probably shared by many classes.

Much variation in classroom instruction can be accounted for statistically by the way teachers interact with students, the way they group them, and the differences in oral or written focus. Most instruction is addressed to classes as one large group, though small groups and individual instruction are occasionally used. The responses which teachers request and the feedback they give to students during class appear to encourage more interaction between teacher and student rather than between students. However, a whole range of other kinds of activities are in use in ESL classes for refugees, with much individual variation from teacher to teacher.

Although the greatest emphasis in English language training classes for refugees is on spoken English, the use of literacy constitutes an important element of classroom instruction. Most materials in use in classroom are written materials of some kind, though drawings, photos and realia can be seen occasionally, especially in lower level classes. Technological materials such as tapes and videos are rarely used. In over 70% of English classes, the teacher presents English in written form at least some of the time, either as a means of instruction in spoken English or as a lesson in reading and writing.

The finding that literacy figures into a large proportion of instruction is important. Further analyses of the classroom observation data show that many teachers do take the literacy ability of their students into consideration to some extent, and adjust instruction by using more drawings and photos requiring physical response and emphasizing money, numeracy and time skills in classes with lower literacy abilities. However, one-fifth of students in refugee English language classes are not literate. Unless literacy is taken into consideration in class placement, it appears that many nonliterate students may find those portions of classroom instruction which assume literacy skills inaccessible.

An important finding of teacher observations is that teachers are also very much on task. There is very little wasted time in classes, or time spent on administrative details. In an allotted hour of class time, teachers spend an average of 58 minutes on instructional activities.

Summary of Student Behavior

Like teachers, students are on-task for a very large part of the class time: 96% of student behavior is directly related to instruction, and this behavior varies little amongst levels, class sizes, and types of students.

The most common behavior (45.5%) observed in classes is behavior that was coded as "other on task"—that is, not reading, writing, or speaking. "Other on task" was usually recorded if students were listening, paying attention or following directions. Student behaviors involving use of literacy, that is reading silently, reading orally, or writing comprise another quarter of class time (26.6%).

When students do speak in class, they usually use English, although they tend to speak to other students in the class more in their native languages than in English. Students were observed actually speaking English 10.6% of the observation time, or about six-and-a-half minutes per hour. The findings suggest that most student speech in class is directed toward the teacher rather than to other students, but students spontaneous speech in English, that is, self-initiated "speaking up," is slightly more often addressed to other students than to the teacher. This observation, plus indications from student discussions that students frequently ask other students for help with schoolwork, together with the finding that more spontaneous speech can be seen in classes with more ethnic groups, suggest that social interaction in the language classroom may affect learning patterns. Students use not only the teacher, but each other as resources for practicing English.

How Teacher and Student Behaviors Vary

What teachers teach, that is, the general content and focus of the lessons, changes little with the level of the classes, though more VESL is taught at higher levels, and more focus is put on money/numeracy and time at lower levels. How teachers teach, however, changes in various ways. At higher levels, teachers tend to take a more unstructured approach, with students encouraged to engage in discussion and to call out answers rather than wait to be called on. A significant way in which teachers vary instruction at higher levels is in the use of literacy. More written materials are used, and teachers tend to present English more in written form at higher levels than at lower levels. At lower levels, more nonliteracy based materials such as pictures and real objects are used to aid instruction than at higher levels. As might be expected, certain student and teacher behaviors change as the proficiency level of the class changes.

Although students at lower levels read significantly less (both orally and silently) than students at higher levels, they are just as likely to write in class as students at higher levels. It may be that students in lower level classes use class time to actually learn to write, while students at higher levels may practice writing as homework and regard writing in class as a tool rather than as an end in itself.

Students at lower levels use their native language more than higher level students, both with the teacher and other students, whereas students at higher levels engage in a higher level and amount of talk in English. Higher level students tend to speak spontaneously more often to the teacher, though the overall spontaneous speech level is not significantly higher than for lower levels. This suggests that proficiency alone is not the only factor determining whether a student "speaks up" in English in class. In fact, students at lower levels were seen speaking English to other students about as often as at higher levels, again suggesting the importance of student-student interaction in self-generated speech.

Class Size

Teaching practices differ by class size mainly in classroom management approaches. The data indicate that teachers are more able to interact with students individually in small classes than in larger ones. Further analyses show class size as having no significant correlation with students' behaviors which are not relating to speaking. An important difference in smaller and larger classes is that a much greater incidence per student in overall spontaneous and elaborated speech in English occurs as classes become smaller. These data suggest that the smaller the class size, the more likely individual students are to speak English on their own initiative in class.

Teacher Experience

Analyses of observation data show very few teacher behaviors to vary with teacher experience. One significant way in which more experienced teachers do differ is that they use less "recitation" in classes, that is, less structured drill or questions and answer activity. Classrooms with more experienced teachers show students having higher per student use of spontaneous or elaborated English speech. If the use of recitation is held constant, the difference in spontaneous speech disappears between experienced and less experienced teachers, indicating that one way which more experienced teachers have found to elicit English speech is to reduce the amount of recitation type activity they use. Experienced teachers also tend to use more drawings, photos and tapes than less experienced teachers, and to correct more often by recuing students.

Teacher Bilingual Ability

Although the number of teachers in this sample is small (8.1%), statistically significant differences are noted in their teaching approaches and student response. Teaching approaches of bilingual teachers differ from non-bilinguals mainly in increased use of the native language in class and the greater emphasis that bilingual teachers tend to place on reading and writing in class. Bilingual teachers observed spend less time on instructional activities, although the proportion of time on-task is still consistently very high, and students are somewhat less on-task in classes where the native language is used.

Sex, Age, Previous Education and Literacy of Students

Since student sex, age, previous education and literacy are so highly correlated to the proficiency levels of classes, the ways in which classes differ by level, discussed above, closely resemble the ways in which they differ by characteristics of students.

Ethnic Mix of Classes

In classes with more ethnic groups, teachers use less of the native language, and focus activities more on student/student interaction than in classes with fewer groups. Students in classes with more ethnic groups used less of the native language with the teacher, and use more elaborated English with other students. The differences in student behavior by ethnic mix of the classes again show the importance of student/student interaction in refugee English language classes.

Predictors of Students' Behavior

In regression analyses of variation in student behavior, class level does not emerge as a predictor of student behaviors but is overpowered by those student characteristics which are related to class proficiency. Education, percent male, literacy and age are the significant background predictors of the student behaviors measured. The length of time students have been in the United States does not enter into the regression equation predicting behavior.

After education, class size is the strongest classroom context variable predicting the student behaviors measured. Class size is by far the strongest predictor of spontaneous speech in classes--smaller classes predicting more spontaneous English speech. Ethnic mix of classes is also a significant predictor of behavior. The only classroom or student characteristic significant in predicting time on-task is literacy. These analyses again demonstrate the influence of student background characteristics on classroom use of English, and the apparent positive effect of smaller class size and ethnically mixed classes on oral English.

Relationships Between Teacher and Student Behavior

Although much student behavior is strongly influenced by background factors over which teachers may not have direct control, some instructional patterns are associated statistically with the student behaviors observed. Correlation matrices were created for all teacher behaviors and student behaviors measured, and for these analyses were again performed holding level and class size constant. These analyses show general relationships; much further analysis would have to be performed for specific groups of classes to determine which teaching practices "work" for specific individuals or groups.

Strongly associated with student-generated speech are teacher use of natural, colloquial speaking style, classroom discussion as an activity, teaching conversation, using unstructured targeting and teacher being on-task in class. In addition, with class sizes and level held constant, teacher/student role play activities and other student/student interaction are also correlated with students speaking English on their own. Negatively associated with student generated speech is teacher use of native language in class and the use of recitation activities. These patterns point to the apparent effectiveness of interactive activities in encouraging students to use English.

Those teaching patterns associated with students being on-task are the use of books, classroom discussion, listening activities, and learning to read and write. Associated with students being off-task are individualized instruction, teaching of survival skills, the use of overly formal English and teaching content in the native language. These findings are more difficult to interpret, particularly since such a high overall level of on-task behavior is seen in refugee English language classes. The only teaching behavior that is associated both with students speaking spontaneous English and students being on-task is the use of discussion as a class activity.

A comparison of the same teachers teaching at different levels with different teachers teaching at different levels in the same programs shows that individual teaching style may be a factor influencing student behaviors of time on-task, spontaneous English speech and elaborated English speech. These are the same behaviors that are related to teacher experience. It appears that a teacher's personal style may be important in influencing these behaviors, and as teachers gain more experience, they find more effective ways of eliciting student response.

In summary, the classroom observations show a wide range of instructional practices being used in refugee ESL classrooms. Teaching patterns are correlated with classroom context, including class size and ethnic mix of class and student characteristics, including background, and age and sex characteristics, present and proficiency level. Proficiency level of classes, in turn, is closely related to education, literacy, sex and age of students. Teacher characteristics such as experience, personal teaching style, and bilingual capability also influence instructional patterns. Literacy, interaction and grouping patterns, language used and integrated vs. structural approach are important ways in which instruction is differentiated amongst classes.

Much of the variation in student behaviors in class, that is, observable language outcomes, can be accounted for by differences in student background.

Still, variables which may be in control of programs such as class size and ethnic mix of classes also appear to influence student outcomes. Small class size particularly seems to be an important determinant in students speaking English in class. Teaching practices do influence student language behavior in important ways and certain instructional choices appear to influence the amount of English talk students generate and the time in class they spend on-task. The next section of this chapter presents the data recorded of the classroom and presents in more detail statistical analyses of results discussed above.

Classroom Observation Results

General Characteristics of Classrooms

Environment, Instruction Time. In most classrooms, the environment is adequately suited for instruction. In about one third of the classrooms visited some detractor was noted, however, such as bad heating, external noise, or overcrowded classrooms. Table III-1 below summarizes beginning times of classes observed.

Table III-1

TIMES CLASSES BEGIN

Time of Day	Beginning Time	Number of Classes	Percentage of Classes
Morning	0800	7	5.8
	0830	14	11.7
	0900	12	10.0
	0930	5	4.1
	1000	2	1.7
	1030	2	1.7
	1100	1	0.8
	1130	4	3.3
TOTAL		47	39.1
Afternoon	1200	9	7.5
	1230	9	7.5
	1300	11	9.2
	1330	8	6.7
	1400	4	3.3
	1500	2	1.7
	1600	4	3.3
	1700	2	1.7
TOTAL		49	40.8
Evening	1800	15	12.5
	1830	7	5.8
	1900	2	1.7
TOTAL		24	20.0

Thirty-nine percent of the classes observed are held in the morning, 41% in the afternoon, and 20% in the evening. As shown in Table III-2 below, the shortest classes are one hour, the longest four hours. The most typical class length is between two and three hours. Since classes were chosen at random from the entire range of the programs' course offerings, this distribution is likely to be fairly representative of times and lengths of English classes offered for refugees.

Table III-2

LENGTH OF CLASSES

Minutes	Number of Classes	Percentage of Classes
60	3	2.6
75	1	0.9
90	2	1.8
120	14	12.3
135	2	1.8
150	16	14.0
165	2	1.8
180	64	65.1
195	1	0.9
210	5	4.4
240	4	.5

Class Size. Average class size observed was 13.4 students. The observed size is somewhat smaller than the average class size reported in the SRELT Phase I survey. The discrepancy suggests that there may be a difference in enrollment figures for programs and in actual attendance, or that some attrition had occurred between the time of reporting on the survey and the time class visits took place.

Whatever the reasons for the difference in reported class size and observed class size, inaccurate estimates of actual attendance may skew the estimated cost per student, making the cost appear lower than it in fact is, and making it important for administrators to ascertain actual class size to accurately measure the size and costs of their programs.

Table III-3 summarizes the distribution of class size.

Table III-3

CLASS SIZE

Number of Students Per Teacher	Percent of Programs in Phase I Survey	Percent of Classes Observed in Phase II Visits
1- 4	7	2.5
5- 9	12	28.1
10-14	23	28.9
15-19	23	23.1
20-24	18	10.8
25-29	10	1.6
30-34	3	0.8
35-39	1	0.0
40+	3	0.0
		Mean 13.4

Student Characteristics--Who Is Being Taught

Southeast Asian refugees participating in English language training programs observed are not a monolithic group, but a composite of many different groups, whose language needs, acquisition, and use may vary. The results of Phase II observations show that refugee students represent diverse background characteristics, and include a wide range of ages, ethnic groups and educational experience.

Sex, Age, Ethnicity. Approximately an equal number of men and women were observed in classes, with slightly more men attending classes. Most programs observed contain men and women in the same classes. The average age of students observed was 29 years, although students range in age from 18 to over 60. One quarter of the classes have only one ethnic group in the class, even though most contained a mix or two or three groups. Students in the programs observed are fairly representative of ethnic groups in programs nationwide, with Vietnamese comprising the largest group observed, followed in order by Khmer, Lao, Hmong, Ethnic Chinese, and Mien groups.

Tables III-4 through III-7 summarize sex, and age characteristics of students observed in classrooms and compare them where possible, to the profile of students nationwide as reported in the SRELT Phase I nationwide survey of English language training providers.

Table III-4

OVERALL SEX DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS

	Classes Observed	National Student Profile Phase I Survey
Male	55%	58%
Female	45%	42%

Table III-5

MIX OF MALES/FEMALES IN CLASSES OBSERVED

Percent Male	Percent Female	Percent of Classes
0- 9	91-100	3.9
10- 19	81- 90	7.5
20- 29	71- 80	8.5
30- 39	61- 70	10.8
40- 49	51- 60	13.6
50- 59	41- 50	10.3
60- 69	31- 40	13.4
70- 79	21- 30	10.5
80- 89	11- 20	11.6
90-100	0- 10	10.0

Table III-6

AGE OF STUDENTS OBSERVED COMPARED TO NATIONAL AVERAGE

		Classes Observed*	National Student Profile Phase I Survey
Age	24 or under	29.1%	31.0%
	25-34	37.6%	39.0%
	35-44	18.1%	19.0%
	45 and over	13.0%	11.0%

*These percentages are based on reports of four students chosen randomly from each class observed.

Ethnicity. Table III-7 shows the ethnicity of students observed in Phase II compared to the national profile. Students in the programs observed are fairly representative of ethnic groups in programs across the nation, with slightly more Hmong and less ethnic Chinese than in the Phase II sample.

Table III-7

ETHNICITY OF STUDENTS OBSERVED COMPARED TO NATIONAL PROFILE*

Ethic Group	Students Observed*	National Student Profile Phase I Survey
Vietnamese	36.5%	36.4%
Khmer	19.9%	15.6%
Lao	16.8%	18.8%
Hmong	15.3%	10.5%
Mien	4.1%	2.4%
Ethnic Chinese	7.4%	13.2%
Other	0.0%	4.0%

*These percentages are based on self-reported ethnicity of four students chosen randomly from each class.

Ethnic Mix. Classes vary with respect to the number of different ethnic groups within a class. Throughout this report, whenever ethnic mix is referred to, it will mean the number of different ethnic groups in a class. For example, a class with a low ethnic mix might contain students from only one ethnic background, whereas a class with high ethnic mix would contain students from several ethnic backgrounds. Some programs are targeted for particular students in ethnic groups, and some classes within programs offer bilingual teachers or aides in particular languages.

There has been little agreement as to whether classes containing only one group are more or less successful. In the SRELT Phase I survey, for example, one factor mentioned as detracting from student success was interethnic conflict. In interviews during program visits, some teachers indicated that classes with only one ethnic group are most successful, while others felt that a mix of groups is most effective.

Table III-8 below shows the ethnic mix of students in the classes observed. As the table indicates, one quarter of the classes observed contain only one ethnic group in the class, most classes contain two or three ethnic groups in the class, and only 8.3% contain four ethnic groups.

Table III-8

ETHNIC MIX OF CLASSES OBSERVED

	Percent of Classes
One ethnic group only in class	24.0%
Two ethnic groups in class	45.5%
Three ethnic groups in class	22.3%
Four or more ethnic groups in class	8.3%

Literacy. Table III-9 below depicts the literacy profile of the classes. For purposes of this analysis, literacy was defined as one year of school or more, or a response by students that they were literate in some language. As the table shows, in 64% of classes, all students have some minimum literacy skills. In seven (5.8%) of the classrooms, however, there are no students who are literate. Classes appear to be divided to some extent on the basis of literacy skills of students, non-literates are likely to be placed in classes with other non-literates, and literate students grouped together. Approximately one-third of refugee ELT classes contain a mix of literate and non-literate students.

Table III-9

DISTRIBUTION OF LITERATE & NON-LITERATE STUDENTS IN CLASSES OBSERVED

Percent of Students Literate*	Percent of Classes
0	5.8
1-20	0.8
21-40	8.2
41-60	7.4
61-80	14.0
81-99	0.0
100	63.6

*Based on reports by four students chosen at random from each class.

Table III-10 shows that the overall literacy rate of students interviewed is 80.4%. The table also shows the literacy profile of the students nationwide as reported in the Phase I survey of this study.

Table III-10

OVERALL STUDENT LITERACY

	Students Observed	National Student Profile Phase I Survey
Literate in some language	80.4%	81.2%
Non-literate in any language	19.6%	18.8%

Education. Table III-11 shows the educational background of the sample of individual students pulled from classes observed compared to the national profile. Thirty percent of the students randomly chosen from each class have no previous education, compared to 15.2% nationally. The differences in education are due to the selection of classrooms observed--more lower level classes were purposely chosen. Otherwise, students observed have about the same educational background as refugee students nationwide. They range in educational experience from no previous education to over 12 years. As Table III-11 shows, in over half the classes observed, the average previous educational attainment of the students is less than six years, or about a grade school education.

Table III-11

PREVIOUS EDUCATION OF SAMPLE STUDENTS

Years	Percent of Students Observed*	National Student Profile Phase I Survey
0	30.5	15.2
1-3	9.8	19.6
4-6	21.0	29.6
7-12	35.9	31.5
13+	2.8	4.2

*Based on reports on randomly chosen students from each classroom

Student Composition by Level; Intercorrelations of Student Characteristics

Many student characteristics are highly intercorrelated, and also correlated with the proficiency level grouping of the class. For example, there is a strong positive correlation between previous education and level of class, and there is a negative correlation found between age and class level. That is, more older students are in lower level classes.

Classes at the higher levels tend to contain more younger students, more males, and students with more education. Though the exact extent of literacy cannot be ascertained from the data collected from classroom observations or the short discussions held with students, lower level classes contain more students with less education, and fewer literacy skills, as well as more women and older students. The middle to highest level classes are virtually 100% literate. Seventy percent of the classes at the first level (lowest 25% leveler response rate as discussed above) have more than two-thirds women. Conversely, in 70% of the classes at the highest level (highest 25%) there are more than two-thirds men in the class. Ethnic mix does not vary significantly with class level; both high and low level classes are as likely to contain all one ethnic group or several. It is important to note that time in the United States is not significantly correlated to class level, that is, the time students have been in the U.S. here does not statistically predict their class level.

Table III-12 below shows the correlations amongst various student characteristics and classroom characteristics. An "o" indicates no statistically significant correlation was found between the two variables, "+" shows a positive correlation, "++" a strong positive correlation, "-" a negative correlation, "--" a strong negative correlation. For example, looking at class size and level, "++" is shown, indicating that there is a positive correlation between the two, that is, increasing education is correlated to increasing or higher class levels. The table shows that previous education, literacy, average age and percent male in class are strongly correlated to increasing class levels. Education is strongly correlated to literacy, and to being male reflecting the differential access to education for men and women in Southeast Asia. For similiar reasons, literacy is strongly positively correlated with being male, and negatively correlated to age, that is, older people tended to be less literate in this sample. Older people also tend to have less previous education, and to be in classes with more women. Class level is positively correlated to education, literacy, percent male, and negatively correlated to age. Class size, however, is not significantly correlated to class level--there are small and large classes at all levels.

Table III-12

CORRELATIONS OF CLASSROOM LEVEL, CLASS SIZE, AND SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

	Class Level	Time in U.S.	Education	Literacy	% Male Class	Ethnic Mix
Time in U.S.	o					
Education	++	o				
Literacy	++	o	++			
% of class male	++	o	++	++		
Average age	--	o	--	--	--	
Ethnic mix	o	o	o	o	+	
Class Size	o	o	o	o	o	o

Key: o = no significant correlation

Positive Correlations	Negative Correlations
+ = p .05	- = p .05
++ = p .01	-- = p .01
+++ = p .001	--- = p .001

Regression Analysis—Which Student Characteristics Predict Class Level

A regression analysis* of student characteristics and class level was performed to determine which student characteristics are most important in predicting class level. The percent of males in the class is the strongest predictor of higher class level. Next important are educational background and average age—more education predicting a higher level, greater age predicting a lower level. These three student characteristics, sex, education, and age statistically predict 47%, or almost half, of the variation in classroom level. The importance of these background characteristics in English acquisition will also be seen in the results of classroom observations, Chapter IV below, teacher interviews, and the community surveys reported in Chapter V.

Teacher Variables

The teacher characteristics chosen for analysis as possible variables in student and teacher behavior observed are teacher sex, experience, and attitudes about certain program features and teaching. Information on background attitudes was gathered during the discussions with classroom teachers.*

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*See Appendix III-B for explanation of data analyses used here.

*Much of the information from teachers was not quantifiable or suitable for the kinds of data analysis used for classroom observation, though possibly important to their behavior and student response. The detailed results of these interviews are discussed in Chapter IV of this report.

In the classes observed, there were approximately twice as many female teachers as male teachers--65.3% of the classes observed had female teachers, 30.6% male, and 3.8% of the classes had team teaching including both a male and a female teacher. There are no differences in levels taught by male or female teachers; all levels are taught by both sexes. However, most bilingual teachers are men, probably reflecting the higher educational status of men in these ethnic groups.

There are no differences in sex of the teacher by proportion of male or female students taught--that is, men and women teachers are both equally likely to teach classes containing more men and classes containing more women.

Teacher experience. Table III-13 below shows the total teacher experience in ESL or working with refugees and their experience with specific refugee programs visited.

The average number of months total experience for this group of teachers is 50.4, or a little over four years. Experience ranges from two months to over eight years, with about a third of the teachers having under two years experience, a third with 2-5 years of experience and a third five or more

Table III-13

TEACHER EXPERIENCE

	Percent of Teachers	
Months Experience	Refugee or ESL Experience	Experience in Program
12 or under	14%	35.7%
13-24 months	17%	20.0%
25-36 months	11%	16.5%
37-48 months	11%	10.4%
49-60 months	14%	5.2%
60+ months	33%	12.2%
Average	50.4 months	34.5 months

years. There are no differences in experience between male and female teachers, and there are no differences in experience in the levels of classes taught--both beginning and advanced classes are as likely to be taught by more experienced teachers (see Table II-14 below). The experience of teachers within the specific programs visited ranges from one month to 20 years. (In these last cases, a few career home-economic teachers have been retrained for a new focus toward ESL instruction for their program, which have recently had high enrollments of refugees.) The teachers observed have been in the programs an average of 34.5 months, or just under three years. These data suggest that most teachers come into the programs with some previous teaching experience, though about 75% of their teaching experience has been gained in the program in which they are currently teaching.

The educational background of the teachers or whether they are full or part-time was not recorded during the site visits for each teacher. However, information from administrative interviews and conversations with teachers indicate that a large proportion of teachers hold a B.A. degree and many have M.A. degrees in ESL. The results of the SRELT Phase I survey show that 38.8% of service providers require a B.A. for a full-time teaching position; 7.3%

Table III-14

TEACHER EXPERIENCE BY CLASS LEVEL

Class Level	Average Months in Program	Average Months Experience With ESL and/or Refugees
1	28.4	53.1
2	29.4	55.2
3	35.9	55.0
4	33.7	40.9
Mean	32.0	49.4

require an M.A. for part-time teachers. Only 1.3% of programs responding to the Phase I questionnaire required four or more years relevant experience. The teachers observed generally exceed minimum experience requirements of programs nationwide.

Teacher bilingualism. Fourteen (8%) teachers observe the use of students' native language for some portion of the class. In the great majority of the classes observed, teachers are native English speakers, and do not speak any of the students' native languages.

What Happens in Classrooms

The next sections of this chapter deal with the aggregated results of teacher and student observed behavior in all classrooms visited. Some features of classroom behavior vary with different class size, level, and characteristics of students and teacher. A discussion of how student behavior varies, and how teacher and student classroom behaviors are interrelated follows the aggregated results.

What is Being Taught

Teacher Behavior. The classroom observation instrument recorded data on instructional content, approaches and techniques.* The discussion below presents the overall results of the classroom observation checklist, which recorded teacher behaviors in classes. For each item recorded, the actual results of the observations are shown. A detailed explanation of working definitions for the checklist is included in Appendix III-A. In the tables present, the category is shown, along with the possible choices on the observation checklist. After each possible choice, the ("N") number of observations is presented, then the percentage of these observation periods in which the behavior was noted, "none," "some" (less than half the observation period), or "a lot" (more than half the observation period). The choices amongst categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive--for example, a teacher could use books "some," blackboard "some" and tape "a lot" during one observation period.

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*A copy of the actual form used to track this information is included in Appendix III-E, as are detailed descriptions of the procedure followed for its use.

Lesson Content. Since many states and programs incorporate survival skills, orientation and pre-employment training into their English programs, SRELT staff noted the lesson content of refugee English classes. Topics a-h in Table III-15 below are those topics which might incorporate American life skills, or "survival skills" into the lesson. "Other" was recorded only if the content of the lesson was a non-specific "language" lesson such as a general grammar or reading lesson.

During approximately one-half class time, the lessons have no cultural orientation or survival skill content. General cultural orientation or survival skills are incorporated into the lesson to some extent 20% of the time. This is followed by employment orientation at 12%. It appears that teachers generally use a good portion of language instruction time, about 50%, to instruct refugee students in survival skills. Sometimes these skills or information are taught in the native language (as "i-L_1, content" indicates), but they are usually integrated into English language instruction. Teachers in refugee ELT are indeed instructing students in needed life skills; as the results of the community survey will show, it is in teaching survival skills that programs seem to be the most effective.

Table III-15

LESSON CONTENT

8. To what extent did the lesson content emphasize:

	Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
a.	Medical orientation	686	97.8	0.4	1.7
b.	Housing	686	95.0	1.3	3.6
c.	Money/numeracy/time	688	93.2	2.2	4.7
d.	Transportation	686	96.9	1.0	2.0
e.	Shopping	685	96.6	1.0	2.3
f.	Employment orientation	687	87.8	3.1	9.2
g.	Other cultural orientation/ survival skills	690	79.3	4.9	15.8
h.	ESL for specific jobs (VESL)	685	98.4	0.6	1.0
i.	L_1 content	686	97.7	0.9	1.5
j.	Other	697	40.9	10.2	48.9

Lesson focus. The results of classroom observations show a wide distribution of lesson foci, with no one language component receiving the most emphasis. Some classes may focus only on grammar, others only on conversation or vocabulary. The smallest portion of time is spent on explicit teaching of pronunciation, in spite of the fact that site discussions indicate that many students and teachers alike (see Chapter IV) feel that pronunciation continues to be one barrier to students' ability to communicate in English outside the classroom. These data must be viewed with caution, however, since there is no evidence that proportion of class time spent in any of these areas necessarily equals how much is needed or learned.

Data from the classroom checklist show a range of approaches and lesson emphases being used in refugee ESL classrooms, from a traditional grammar-translation approach to the use of newer approaches such as Total

Physical Response and Suggestopedia. The results also suggest that most teachers sometimes use structuralist approaches, breaking language into discrete parts for instruction. The teaching of conversation and "other" (which includes language notions and situational English) shows the presence of a notional/functional or language situational approach also in use in refugee classrooms.

Table III-16

LESSON FOCUS

To what extent were the following explicitly taught?

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Learning to read and write	686	61.5	10.5	28.0
Grammatical patterns	675	67.4	9.6	23.0
Vocabulary	686	57.3	15.2	27.6
Pronunciation	679	81.0	11.6	7.4
Conversation	684	69.0	11.0	20.0
Other	674	82.6	4.3	13.1

How English is Taught

Language of instruction. The overwhelming majority of refugee ELT classes use English as the only language of instruction, and only one class observed used no English at all. Discussions with students (presented in Chapter IV) indicate that many beginning students have little or no opportunity to use English outside the classroom. The observation that over 91% of classroom language is English (see Table III-16 below) is an indication that during class teachers are exposing students to the English language as much as possible.

Besides language instruction, other information such as refugee orientation, survival skills, and job orientation is also usually presented in English.

Table III-17

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION
(N = 700)

Language of the teacher:

English only	91.3%
Other	1.0%
English and another	7.7%

As table III-18 below indicates, the incidence of teacher use of formalized English or pidginized, unnaturally simplified English occurs infrequently. Most teachers use natural, colloquial American English, thereby providing a model for the language style which students are most likely to encounter outside of school.

Table III-18

TEACHER SPEECH STYLE

To what extent did the teacher use:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Formal English	606	93.4	4.6	2.0
Natural/colloquial English	494	4.3	3.2	92.4
Pidgin English	607	92.9	5.4	1.6

As shown in Table III-17 above, only 8.1% of classes observed had bilingual teachers. As Table III-19 below shows, some classes also use bilingual aides, who are present in only one in ten classes. English speaking aides are also present in one in ten classes. When aides are present, they participate in teaching, interpreting or other duties, including clerical help for the teachers, taking attendance, readying materials, etc.

The results of the Phase I survey of the SRELT study show that 78% of local English language training service providers use bilingual personnel in one or more capacities, and 42% use bilingual personnel as aides. The classroom observations indicate that bilingual personnel are present in only one in ten classrooms, suggesting that bilingual staff tend to be shared by many classes in a program. Presence of bilingual aides is not related, in these class observations, to the length of time students in the class have been in the U.S., another indication that use of aides may be based more on availability than student need. Since a few of the teachers (8%) in the classes observed are bilingual, it again appears that most refugee ESL students are taught English using English only, without the help of translation into their native languages.

Table III-19

CLASSROOM AIDES

How many aides were present?

Classroom Aides	Average Number Per Class
Bilingual	.1
English only	.1

AIDE ACTIVITY

To what extent did aide emphasize:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Teaching	352	97.7	0.6	1.7
Individual tutoring	349	98.9	0.3	0.9
Interpreting	354	97.2	1.1	1.7
Taking students out of class	349	99.7	0.3	0.0
Other	384	86.5	9.9	3.0

Teacher Interaction Patterns

Teachers manage classrooms in various ways, both in terms of grouping of students, interaction between teacher and student, and how teachers direct students to interact with each other.

Grouping. The observations show that most teachers direct instruction to the entire class. The use of small groups within the class is uncommon, and individualized instruction also infrequent.

Table III-20

GROUPING

To what extent was instruction addressed to students?

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
As a whole group	698	7.3	13.2	79.5
In small groups	621	93.2	2.4	4.3
Individually at their seats	623	82.2	6.6	11.2

Activities. Teachers in refugee classrooms use many kinds of activities. The most common activity is one defined for purposes of data recording as recitation, including teacher directed group activities with overt responses, such as question and answer pattern practice or other drills of some sort. Besides recitation, other activities are distributed over a wide range, as Table III-21 shows.

Teachers direct activity more often toward student/teacher interaction (recitation, listening, teacher/student role play) than student/student interaction or individual seatwork. The rare incidence of testing and assessment observed may be due in part to the fact that teachers knew of the Study's classroom visits in advance, and generally did not schedule any testing for days when project staff would be observing their classes.

Table III-21

ACTIVITIES

To what extent did the teacher direct student activity towards:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Board work/displays	687	88.4	6.8	4.8
Seatwork	683	79.6	5.4	14.9
Testing/assessment	668	98.2	0.1	1.6
Recitation	669	31.4	18.1	50.2
Discussion	681	80.3	8.5	11.2
Listening/comprehension	680	78.7	10.1	11.2
Role playing-teacher/student	687	98.1	1.2	0.7
Role playing-student/student	685	96.4	1.8	1.9
Other teacher directed--student/student interaction	684	87.3	6.4	6.3
Other	671	84.4	3.4	12.2

Targeting. There are several different ways teachers interact with students to elicit response in English. Teachers in refugee classrooms most commonly choose a directed targeting approach, asking a particular student to respond. Also common is an unstructured approach in which students respond as they wish. Less often, teachers also ask for unison responses as well or work with individuals at their seats.

Table III-22

TARGETING OF STUDENTS

To what extent did the teacher use the following targeting methods?

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Unison	674	62.8	17.5	19.7
Unstructured	672	50.6	24.1	25.3
Directed	666	39.2	19.8	41.0
Voluntary	686	93.7	2.9	3.4
Individual at seat	677	83.6	4.1	12.3
Other	688	95.3	1.2	3.5

Correction. The most frequent correction pattern is immediate correction of the student by the teacher. Correction by other students occurs infrequently. The frequent use of teacher recue (repeating the question or giving a partial answer) suggests that teachers are encouraging students to correct themselves, a skill which may be important in English acquisition and use outside of the classroom. The data also suggest that some teachers choose to correct students infrequently or not at all.

Table III-23

CORRECTION

To what extent was the corrective feedback style:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Immediate teacher correction	641	44.3	12.3	43.4
Teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	675	92.1	4.6	3.3
Teacher recuing student	651	55.6	14.1	30.3
Other student correction	674	87.1	9.9	3.0
Other	665	92.8	1.2	6.0

How English is Presented. The materials used in the English classroom and the medium, whether spoken or written, differentiate English classes for refugees. As mentioned previously, the written word is a very important component of instruction, though emphasis on oral English is evidenced by the observation that English is presented orally to some extent in almost all classes.

As the table below indicates, English is commonly presented both orally and in written form, with very few classes using no oral English at all, and only one-fourth of the classes using no written English in instruction.

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Table III-24

PRESENTATION OF ENGLISH

To what extent did the teacher present English?

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
In written form	667	26.3	38.1	35.6
Orally	655	5.2	14.8	80.0
Nonverbally	652	96.0	2.6	1.4
Other	654	98.3	0.3	1.4

Response Required. In over 75% of the classes, teachers require no written response, whereas in only 12% no speaking is required. Physical response is required in less than one out of ten classes. Most teachers of refugee ESL are placing more emphasis on spoken English than written English in the classroom. This finding corresponds to the response of teachers interviewed; more teachers feel speaking to be more important than writing for refugee ESL students. Though teachers and administrators alike frequently mentioned Total Physical Response as a very effective classroom approach for lower level students, it is only used in about 7% of the classrooms.

Table III-25

RESPONSE REQUIRED

To what extent did the teacher require a:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Written response	669	72.6	9.0	18.4
Spoken response	630	12.2	10.2	77.6
Physical response	673	92.9	4.0	3.1

The providence of written English in class may presume student literacy. Remember that the random sample of students in these classes shows that about 20% of students are not literate, and literate and non-literate students are mixed in some classes. The observation that teachers in 26% of the observations do not use any writing indicates that the literacy ability of students seems to be taken into account by some teachers. Still, the use of literacy as an instructional tool in 70% of classes suggests that many classes or portions of classes may be inaccessible to non-literate students, making careful placement of these students essential.

Teacher Materials

The observations show that teachers use a wide range of materials in ESL classes, with board writing, books, and worksheets being used most frequently. Most materials in use are based on written language. Drawings/photos and realia are used infrequently, and technological materials such as films, videos or tapes are rarely used. Table III-26 shows the ranges and emphasis on different classroom materials.

Table III-26

TEACHER MATERIALS

4. To what extent did the teacher use:

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
a. Board writing	668	49.1	21.4	29.5
b. Books	668	75.4	4.2	20.4
c. Worksheets	672	77.2	4.0	18.8
d. Literacy props	674	92.1	2.2	5.6
e. Drawings/photos	680	81.8	4.1	14.1
f. Films/video	681	99.4	0.0	0.6
g. Tape	682	97.8	0.4	1.8
h. Tangible objects	677	92.6	2.1	5.3

Student Materials

In over half the observation periods, students were using written materials at least some of the time. As the table below shows, students also use other materials, but infrequently. In just six classes observed did students use no materials at any time. Again, in the use of materials by students, literacy appears to play an important part in ESL instruction for refugees.

Table III-27

STUDENT MATERIALS

5. To what extent were students using at their desks at teachers direction?

Category	N	None	Some	A Lot
Written materials	690	41.7	14.8	43.5
Tangible objects	674	96.0	1.6	2.4
Other	680	89.0	3.4	7.6

Overall Patterns

Pace; Time on Task

Teachers' pace in refugee classrooms averages about one-half hour per topic or activity. Teachers change the focus or content of their lesson .2 times per seven-minute observation period or on the average of about one to two times per hour. It is important to note that overall teachers spend over 97% of class time on direct instruction, with little wasted time or time spent on activities other than English instruction.

Table III-28

TIME SPENT ON INSTRUCTION

Question		Average Number Per Observation (7 minutes)
19	How many changes in lesson content occurred?	0.2
20	How many interruptions occurred?	0.1
		Percent of Time Spent
21	How many minutes of the seven minute period were spent on instructional activities?	97.3

Factor Analysis: What Patterns Tend to Co-occur

To examine which teacher behaviors tend to occur together, a factor analysis was performed. Factor analyis is a statistical technique which attempts to reduce the number of variables in a data set without losing important information. To do this, groups of variables which are highly intercorrelated are treated as a single variable. Each of the new variables are referred to as factors. The first factor derived accounts for the most intercorrelation, the second factor for the next highest amount and so on. In the technique we used (known as principal axis factor analysis with rotation), each factor produced is uncorrelated with any other factor. The names that are assigned to each factor were chosen to best describe the important behavior variables which are related to it.

A factor analysis of teacher behavior observation indicates that certain teaching patterns are correlated and tend to occur with others, as shown in Table III-21 at the end of this section. The table shows which behaviors of the observed teacher behaviors are related to each factor and their correlation with the factor. The factor accounting for the most variation in teacher behavior includes items which grouped around factors of grouping and language medium, with GROUP RECITATION as opposed to INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK. That is, whole group work and presentation, spoken response, recitation and direct response tend to co-occur, but tend not to occur when there is individual instruction, seatwork, targeting the individual at his or her seat, and the requirement of written response. Written responses, individual instruction, and seatwork activities tend to co-occur.

After the group RECITATION vs. INDIVIDUAL factor was accounted for, the second group of items which emerges are those which might be seen as a literacy factor, TANGIBLE OBJECTS vs. WRITTEN lessons. In other words, the teachers tend to present English in written form when the students are using written materials, and these behaviors tend not to occur when the teacher or students use tangible objects, or when a physical response is required.

The third factor which emerges after Factors 1 and 2 have been accounted for is a group of teacher behavior patterns which could be described as a focus factor: STRUCTURAL/GRAMMAR oriented vs. FUNCTIONAL or SITUATIONAL oriented. That is, occuring together are discussion, employment orientation, job specific ESL, and lessons in which language structure is not explicitly taught, and teacher asking students to correct each other, while grammar oriented lessons, and lessons containing no survival skill components, tended to occur together.

The first factor, GROUP RECITATION vs. INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK, is not highly correlated to the proficiency level of the class; these behaviors tend to co-occur at all proficiency levels.

Factors 2 and 3 appear to be related to proficiency level of classrooms, with WRITTEN focus correlated more with higher levels, TANGIBLE OBJECTS more at lower levels. Similarly, FUNCTIONAL/SITUATIONAL approaches tend to be correlated, with higher proficiency levels focus, and STRUCTURAL/GRAMMAR based lessons with lower levels.

Table III-29

CLASSROOM TEACHER BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

	Behavior Observed	Correlation with Factor
Factor 1: Grouping and Language Medium		
Group Recitation	Instruction as whole group	.66
	Teacher presented English orally	.63
	Teacher required spoken response	.79
vs.	Recitation activity	.58
Individual Seatwork	Instruction to students individually	-.73
	Seatwork activity	-.70
	Targeting students individually	-.67
	Written response required	-.63
Class Proficiency Level		.19
Factor 2: Literacy		
Tangible Objects	Students using tangible objects	.59
	Teacher using tangible objects	.73
	Physical response required	.67
vs.		
Written	Teacher presented English in written form	-.71
	Students using written materials	-.66
Class Proficiency Level		-.45
Factor 3: Focus		
Structural/ Grammar	Grammatical patterns explicity taught	-.42
	Other content (grammar or non-survival)	-.52
vs.		
Functional/ Situational	Discussion activity	.42
	Lesson focus "other" (not language structure	.46
	Lesson content	
	employment orientation	.42
	ESL for specific jobs	.42
	Teacher asks students to correct each other	.47
Class Proficiency Level		.38

Student Behavior: What Students Do In English Classes

Table III-30 below lists the means recorded for various student behaviors. The mean indicates the average number of occurrences of the behavior per student, during the observation period. Numbers are not meaningful, in themselves, but comparisons of the means reveal patterns of student behavior in the refugee classroom. Appendix III-A contains a detailed explanation of how behaviors were coded and working definitions of the terms used in the following section.

Types of Student Behavior Observed. The most common student behavior observed falls in the category of other on task behavior." This category includes behavior in which students are on task, for example, listening, paying attention or doing as directed, but not speaking, reading, or writing. This behavior occurs over three times more often than the next most common activity, reading silently, and four times more often than all behaviors noted for speaking English. These data indicate that on the whole, students listen in class far more than they speak, read or write English.

Reading and writing are the next most commonly observed student behaviors; reading silently occurs seven times more often than reading orally. Speaking English, either spontaneously or at the direction of the teacher, occurs about as often as writing, but far less than listening or reading. English speech as a response to teacher direction of some sort was seen twice as often as student-generated speech, suggesting that students in classrooms are more likely to use speech as repetition or response to the teacher than as a communicative medium.

Table III-30

SUMMARY OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR

	Mean
SPAVE (Spontaneous Average)	0.9
ELAVE (Elaborated Average)	0.2
Behaviors:	
1. DR (Directed Response)	7.9
2. ST (Spontaneous English to Teacher)	0.7
3. SS (Spontaneous English to Student)	0.9
4. ET (Elaborated English to Teacher)	0.6
5. ES (Elaborated English to Student)	0.5
6. LT (Native Language to Teacher)	0.2
7. LS (Native Language to Student)	2.0
8. RO (Reading Orally)	2.0
9. RS (Reading Silently)	15.1
10. W (Writing)	11.5
11. O (Other on Task Behavior)	45.5
12. OT (Off Task)	3.9
13. Q (Observer Can't Tell Behavior)	2.5
14. QT (Student Speaking to Teacher, Can't Determine Language)	0.1
15. QS (Student Speaking to Student, Can't Determine Language)	0.8
Composite Variables:	
ENG (Spontaneous & Elaborated Var.)	4.6
LANG (Native Language)	2.2
READ (Read Oral & Read Silent)	17.3
? (Observer Can't Tell Language)	
On Task (1,2,3,4,5,8,9,10,11)	85.2%
Percent on Task	96.0%

The higher incidence of reading silently, writing and other on task compared to other behaviors shows that students in class are engaged in noninteractive behavior far more often than interactive behavior.

One of the most important overall observations of student behavior is that, regardless what students are doing in class, the percentage of time on-task is consistently very high--over 96% of student time is spent on task, in behavior directly related to classroom instruction.

Student Language

As Table III-30 above shows, like teacher speech, most student speech in classrooms is English speech. However, students tend to speak their native languages to other students more than they speak English to other students, while they speak English more often to the teacher. This observation might be accounted for by the fact that very few teachers observed were bilingual. It is not possible to ascertain from these observations whether students at their desks were reading or writing a language other than English.

Interaction Types

The results of the observations evidence that most student English speech is directed toward the teacher rather than to other students. However, students' spontaneous speech in English, which is most likely to be used to communicate some need, request some clarification, explain, or socialize, was slightly more often directed to other students than to the teacher. Students speak to each other in their native language more frequently than they speak spontaneously to the teacher either in English or the native language. Both of these findings suggest that students may use each other frequently as learning resources in class, and that the social aspect of speech may be a factor in language learning in refugee classrooms.

Factor Analysis: Patterns of Student Behavior

A factor analysis of the student behaviors was performed to show which behaviors tend to cluster together, and in what general ways classroom behavior varies. The same procedures for factor analysis were used as for factor analysis of teacher behavior.

The first factor which emerges is READING vs. OTHER ON TASK (listening, following directions). Reading tends not to occur when "OTHER" is recorded. That READING should emerge as the strongest factor reinforces the other observations of this study which indicate that an important way in which ESL classes for refugees vary is in teacher and student use of literacy.

The second factor is ELABORATED SPEECH. Elaborated Average, Elaborated Speech to Teacher, Asking Questions in Class and overall level of English are correlated to this factor. Of all the relationships seen amongst student behaviors, in 132 classrooms observed in student behavior, behaviors related to the READING and ELABORATED SPEECH factor accounted for 50% of the variation seen.

The third factor is SPONTANEOUS SPEECH, with Spontaneous Average, Elaborated Average, and Spontaneous Speech to Teacher tending to occur together. Fourth is a factor in which use of native language to other students occurred with the "Question" category of behavior, where the observer could not tell for sure what students were doing. This factor indicates that observers tended to be unsure of behaviors in classrooms with more native language speech. The fifth significant factor is WRITING vs. OTHER. No other behaviors were observed as co-occurring significantly with WRITING, that is, neither speech nor reading seem to go on when students are writing. That "Other" was seldom recorded with writing is probably due to the fact that writing is so clearly identifiable as a task that "Other on Task" would rarely be chosen by an observer if writing were also happening.

TABLE III-31

FACTOR ANALYSIS: STUDENT BEHAVIOR

	Behavior Measures	Correlations with Factor
Factor 1:		
Reading vs.	Reading Silently	0.87
	Reading Orally	0.38
Other on Task	Other on Task	-0.81
Factor 2		
Elaborated Speech	Elaborated Average	0.56
	Elaborated to Teacher	0.48
	Checklist Item - Communicative Speech	0.72
	Overall Level of English	0.58
Factor 3		
Spontaneous Speech	Spontaneous Average	0.79
	Elaborated Average	0.53
	Spontaneous Speech to Teacher	0.64
Factor 4		
Native Language	L_1 to Student	0.76
	Q - Can't Tell Behavior	0.51
Factor 5		
Other vs.	Writing	0.89
Writing	Other on Task	-0.50

Variations in Teacher and Student Behavior by Classroom, Teacher and Student Characteristics

Class Level

As measured proficiency levels of classes increase, certain aspects of instruction and student response change to ascertain how refugee classrooms vary by level. The data collected during classroom observations was broken down by 4 class levels, as measured by the leveler discussed previously in Chapter II.

As Table III-32 below indicates, significant ways in which teacher behavior varies by level is in teacher use of writing. At higher levels, teachers present English in written form more than at lower levels; similarly, books are used more at higher levels than lower levels, and students are using more written materials at the teacher's direction at higher levels. On the other hand, at lower levels, teachers use more literacy props, such as word or letter charts, and more tangible objects, drawings and photos. As discussed above, lower level classes tend to contain fewer literate students, and it appears that teachers do adjust some of the materials they use in classes with nonliterate students, using graphic representations and literacy props to some extent, instead of using only written materials.

Though more discussion occurs at higher levels; other classroom activities do not vary. However, at lower levels, there are more different kinds of activities which do not fall under any of the other categories in the observation instrument and are, therefore, coded "other." The use of different kinds of activities for lower levels is borne out by discussions held with teachers, who mention that for lower level classes, particularly non-literate classes, teacher-prepared materials are often used, and innovative activities must be tried.

At higher levels, teachers use more "unstructured" targeting, that is, students generally respond on their own, without being specifically asked to. At lower levels, more physical response is required of the students.

Teachers use "pidgen" or simplified, non-colloquial English rarely, and then only at the lowest level of instruction. There are no differences by level observed in the number of bilingual aides in class, suggesting again that the use of aides may be more based on availability of aides than proficiency of students. There are also no differences by level in the percentage of time the teacher spends on direct instruction, or the number of interruptions observed.

These findings demonstrate that teachers adjust their teaching choices to consider the English proficiency level of the students. Many appear to be taking into account the background characteristics of students, for example, by using some alternatives to literacy for nonliterate students, and focusing on immediate survival needs such as money and numbers for low level, often nonliterate, students. The overall amount of literacy used in the classrooms shows that teachers use reading and writing as a major tool for teaching English, and suggests that though student literacy is taken into account in instruction, much instruction still assumes literacy. Though there are differences in activities by level, there are no significant differences seen in lesson focus. That is, lower and higher level classes are both just as likely to focus on learning to read or write, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, or conversation. Similarly, most aspects of lesson content do not vary by level, except that English for specific jobs (VESL) is used more at higher levels, and money/numbers/time is included more at lower levels. What teachers teach does not seem to change much with levels, but how they teach changes in various ways.

Teacher Behavior--Variation by Level

Table III-32 below summarizes those teacher behaviors which vary significantly by class level. Only those items which, when a test of variance was performed, vary significantly by different levels, are presented here. If an item or behavior category does not appear on this chart, there were no statistically significant differences in classes of different levels for this behavior. For each item or category, the checklist item number is listed, then the overall mean for all classes is shown. The mean is computed from the choices: None (1.0), Some (2.0), and A Lot (3.0). Next, the average for each class level is presented to show the direction and amount of variation. The statistically computed F ratio and correlation coefficent are shown.

Table III-32

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BY LEVEL

Check-list Item No.	Behavior	Mean	Level 1	2	3	4	F Ratio	Corr.
3	English presented in written form	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.82	0.25
4	Teacher Materials:							
	Book	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	3.94	0.30
	Lit. Props	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	3.12	-0.25
	Drawings/Photos	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	3.05	-0.15
5	Student Materials							
	Written Materials	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.3	5.08	0.32
6	Activity							
	Discussion	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.6	8.49	0.38
	Other	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	3.03	-0.26
8	Lesson Content							
	Money/Numbers/Time	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	6.24	-0.36
	ESL for Specific Jobs	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	3.06	0.25

Table III-32

Continued

Check-list Item No.	Behavior	Mean	Level 1	2	3	4	F Ratio	Corr.
9	Targeting of Students Unstructured	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.8	3.89	0.25
10	Response Required Physical Response	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	3.35	-0.30
11	Teacher Speech Style Use of Pidgen Eng.	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	4.69	-0.26

Table III-33 below lists those student behaviors which vary significantly by class level. Overall, students at higher class levels differ from students at lower levels in two behavioral categories: elaborated and spontaneous English speech, and reading.

As might be expected, the overall level and amount of talk in English is significantly higher at higher proficiency levels. Students produce more spontaneous speech to the teacher, and more elaborated speech to the students. However, it is important to note that their overall spontaneous speech average is not significantly higher than lower levels, suggesting that proficiency alone may not be the most important factor in whether or not students speak English spontaneously in class.

At lower levels, students are not as likely to expand on topics, ask questions in class, or speak to the teacher in English, but students at lower levels were seen speaking to each other in English about as often as at higher levels. Again, student-student interaction, or some social aspect of the classroom seems to be an important factor in students using English in class, regardless of proficiency level. Students at lower levels use their native language more, both to the teacher and to other students.

At higher levels, more reading is observed—students spend twice as much time reading at the highest levels than at the lowest levels. However, students do not write more at higher levels. In fact, somewhat but not significantly more writing was observed at lower levels. This observation is perhaps due to the fact that in beginning classes students may use class time to learn to write, while the writing at upper levels may be done as homework, or that upper level students may have different strategies for learning new materials.

Table III-33

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY LEVEL

Behavior Measured	Overall Mean	Level 1	2	3	4	F-Ratio	Correlation
DR—Directed Response	6.9	6.7	8.5	7.7	4.5*	3.5	-0.11
SS—Spontaneous English to Student	0.9	0.6	2.7	1.2	2.9	4.6	0.16
ET—Elaborated English to Teacher	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.5	1.0	3.7	0.34
RS—Reading Silently	15.2	11.8	11.9	16.3	20.3	5.7	0.28
QS—Observer Can't Tell Language Student is Speaking to Student	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.6	1.4	2.8	0.21
Elaborated Speech Student to Teacher	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	7.4	—
ENG- Spontaneous & Elaborated Speech Average	4.6	2.8	5.1	4.6	5.7	4.7	0.30
READ—Read Silently Read Oral	17.2	13.7	12.9	18.7	23.4	6.5	0.29

Table III-33

Continued

Behavior Measured	Overall Mean	Level 1	2	3	4	F-Ratio	Correlation
To What Extent Do Students Ask Questions	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	4.5	0.25
How many students were using English that is:							
Mechanical	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.2	10.3	-0.41
Meaningful	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.7	7.2	-0.21
Communicative	1.8	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.4	20.8	0.60

Despite difference in student behavior between proficiency levels, there is no difference in the percent of time students spend on task, all proficiency levels showing very task oriented behavior.

Teacher Behavior by Class Size

Table III-34 below summarizes the significant variation in teacher behavior by the size of the class. The table is set up like Table III-22 above.

Teacher behaviors vary significantly by class size in certain groups of behaviors which might be seen as classroom management approaches. For example, instruction is broken up into small groups more when classes are larger. Also, teachers require more unison response in larger classes, whereas unstructured response is more common in smaller classes--it is more manageable to allow students to call out the answer in smaller classes than in very large ones. In smaller classes, there is signficantly more recuing of individual students as a way of correcting them than in larger classes. As might be expected, these data show that teachers are able to address students individually more in small classes than in large ones.

Some difference in lesson materials, lesson focus, and content is also noted by class size. Smaller classes use books more often, larger classes focus more on money, numeracy and time. Teachers of smaller classes tend to teach more grammar and language structure, whereas larger classes focus on these areas less often. There are, however, no other significant differences in lesson focus or content by class size, suggesting that teacher decision on what to teach are not heavily influenced by class size factors, but approaches to teaching are influenced by class size.

As can be seen from the table below, for some items (those marked with *), a statistically signficant difference is noted in the teacher behavior in

Table III-34

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BY CLASS SIZE

Check-list Item	Behavior	Mean	(1-9)	(10-15)	(16+)	F-Ratio
2	Group size:					
	whole group*	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.6	5.8
	small group	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	5.2
	individual*	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	3.7
3	Teacher presents English orally*	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.6	5.6
4	Materials:					
	books	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.2	4.2
	tape	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	3.7
6	Activities:					
	seatwork*	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.4	4.2
	recitation*	2.2	2.0	2.4	2.1	4.6

---

*Variance is not linear—middle group differs

Table III-34

Continued

Check-list Item	Behavior	Mean	(1-9)	(10-15)	(16+)	F-Ratio
7	Focus "other"	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	3.9
8	Lesson content money/numeracy/ time	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	3.3
9	Targeting					
	unison	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.8	6.8
	unstructured*	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.6	5.4
11	Correction					
	teacher recue*					
	student	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.6	5.0
14	Teacher speech style: pidgen English*	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.6	5.0
15	Aide activity "other"	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	3.7
17	No. of bilingual aides per class	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	1.2

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*Variance is not linear—middle group differs

largest groups. These findings must be interpreted cautiously, as some of the differences may be due to random variation. In these middle-sized groups, more instruction as a whole group is noted, and less individual instruction. Also, more instruction is given orally and more oral response is required. There is less seatwork in the middle-sized group, and more unstructured targeting and discussion.

Class Size by Student Behavior. Classroom observation analyses do not show correlation between class size and student behaviors which are not related to speaking. That is, there are no observed differences between smaller and larger groups in reading, writing, or "other" (usually listening), nor in overall time students spend on task. Also, students do not vary in their use of native language by the size of the class. An important observation, however, is that the smaller the class size, the more spontaneous and elaborated speech to the teacher occurs. A much greater incidence of overall spontaneous and elaborated speech is also observed. These data indicate that the smaller the class size, the more opportunity there may be for students to speak. Large class size seems not to affect behaviors which are not related to speech, possibly because they are essentially non-interactive tasks—that is, reading, writing, and listening do not require the response of another person.

Table III-35 below summarizes those student behaviors which vary significantly by class size. The table shows only those behaviors for which a significant difference was found by class size. The tables show the overall mean for all classes, then the means for each of three class size groups. The F-ratio follows the means for each class size.

Table III-35

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY CLASS SIZE

		Class Size			
Behavior Measured	Mean	(1-e9)	10-15)	16+	F-Ratio
ST--Spontaneous English to Teacher	2.6	3.5	3.0	1.5	12.5
ET--Elaboarated English to Teacher	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.4	7.4
?—Observer Can't Tell Behavior	2.5	1.7	2.3	3.5	7.5
Total Spontaneous to Student and Teacher	0.9	1.4	1.0	0.3	45.8
Total Elaborated Speech to Student and Teacher	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	16.4
English Spontaneous and Elaborated Total	4.6	6.3	4.4	3.0	10.8
L_1 Total	2.2	1.7	2.2	2.7	3.2
Non-English or Observer Can't Tell	5.6	3.9	5.5	7.4	10.5
To What Extent Were Students Using English That is					
Mechanical	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.6	3.5
Communicative	1.8	2.1	1.7	1.7	5.7

Teacher Experience

Table III-36 below shows the behaviors which vary significantly by teacher experience. As can be seen from the table, analyses of observations of teachers with a range of experience show very little overall variation in teacher behavior by experience. These findings do not necessarily indicate that teachers do not change their approaches over time, rather that the direction of change, if any, seems to be different for different individuals, so that classroom observations do not show great overall differences in teacher behavior by experience.

However, there are a few items which vary significantly with teacher experience. More experienced teachers tend to use less "recitation," or structured drill or question-answer type activities in their classes. They also tend to use more drawings, photos, and tape in their classes.

Table III-36

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BY TEACHER EXPERIENCE

			Months Experience			
Checklist Item No.	Behavior	Mean	30 mos. or less	31-60 mos.	60 mos. or over	F Ratio
4	Materials					
	Drawings/ Photos	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.5	3.49
	Tape	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	.32
6	Activity					
	Recitation	2.2	2.4	2.0	2.1	4.84
11	Correction					
	Tchr. Recue	1.8	1.8	1.6*	1.9	4.35

*Variation is not linear—middle group differs

Table III-37 summarizes the variance observed in student behavior by the experience of the teacher. Spontaneous speech in English to the teacher, elaborated average, and overall spontaneous and elaborated speech increase significantly in classes with more experienced teachers. Since less frequent use of recitation is the most significant difference in teacher behavior by experience, an analysis was run to see if the use of recitation might account for the variation. If use of recitation is held constant statistically, the differences in student spontaneous speech by teacher experience disappear. This finding strongly suggests that one way more experienced teachers encourage student talk is to reduce the amount of structured repetition, question and answer, and drill activities that they use, and increase other types of classroom activities.

Table III-37

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY TEACHER EXPERIENCE

Behavior Measure	Mean All Classes	30 mos. or less	31-60 mos.	60 mos. or over	F* Ratio	Correlation
Elaborated Average	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	3.62	0.14
Spontaneous Speech to Teacher	2.7	2.1	2.8	3.6	4.75	0.22
Native Language to Teacher	0.2	0.2	0.5*	0.1	3.36	-0.10
All Spontaneous Elaborated Speech Composite	4.6	3.6	4.7	6.3	5.64	0.24

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*F(2,119) Significant at .05

Teacher Bilingual Ability

Bilingual teachers differ from teachers who are not bilingual in instructional patterns that have to do with use of the native language and use of reading and writing. Table III-38 below shows that bilingual teachers use more native language in class; their English is natural and more colloquial than teachers who are not bilingual. They present English more in written form, place a greater focus on learning to read and write, and use more board writing than other teachers. Conversely, they require less spoken response, do fewer student/student interactive activities in class, and use drawings and photos less often. Bilingual teachers observed spend slightly less time on direct instructional activities than monolingual teachers. Discussions with these teachers and with other bilingual personnel in programs indicate that staff with bilingual capabilities often are called upon to do certain intake and administrative tasks, and help students with daily problems.

The differences in student behavior observed when a teacher is bilingual mainly have to do with students' use of their native language. Compared to classrooms in which the teacher is not bilingual, students use their native language more with the teacher as well as with other students. Even if level is taken into consideration, and held constant statistically, the use of native language is still higher in classes with bilingual teachers at all proficiency levels. Table III-39 shows the differences in student behavior noted when a teacher is bilingual. As the table also shows, there is more "directed response" in classes with bilingual teachers, possibly reflecting traditional teaching methods by bilingual teachers.

When class size and level are held constant in analyses of ways in which teacher behaviors are related to student outcomes, teacher use of L_1 in classes is correlated to more off-task behavior.

Table III-38

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BY TEACHER BILINGUAL CAPABILITY

Behavior	Mean	Teacher Not Bilingual	Teacher Bilingual	F Ratio	Correlation
Language by Teacher	1.2	1.0	2.4	652.4	0.92
Group Size (instruction addressed to individuals at seats)	1.3	1.3	1.5	4.2	0.18
English Presented in Written Form	2.1	2.1	2.3	4.1	0.18
Materials:					
Use of Board Writing	1.8	1.8	2.1	6.9	0.23
Use of Drawings/Photos	1.3	1.4	1.1	6.4	-0.22
Activities:					
Other Student/Student Interaction	1.2	1.2	1.0	7.7	-0.25
Lesson Focuse					
Learning by Reading and Writing	1.7	1.6	2.3	29.5	0.44
Content:					
Content in L_1	1.0	1.0	1.3	51.8	0.55
Response Required:					
Spoken Response	2.7	2.7	2.4	11.7	-0.30
Correction Feedback					
Teacher Recue	1.8	1.8	1.3	11.4	-0.30
Other (including explanation in L_1)	1.1	1.1	1.5	20.6	______
Teacher Speech Style:					
Natural/Colloquial English	2.9	2.9	2.3	49.8	-0.54
Aide Activity:					
Teaching	1.0	1.0	1.2	9.4	0.29
% Time Spent on Instructional Activites	97.1%	98.6%	92.9%	16.7	-0.35

Table III-39

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR
BY TEACHER BILINGUAL ABILITY

Behavior Measure	Mean	Teacher Not Bilingual	Teacher Bilingual	F-Ratio	Correlation
DR--Directed Response	7.9	7.4	12.0	4.96	0.20
LT--Native Language to Teacher	0.2	0.1	0.8	12.84	0.31
LS--Native Language to Student	2.0	1.8	3.4	6.10	0.22
Q--Observer Could not Tell Behavior	2.5	2.2	4.3	2.52	-0.14
LT + LS	2.2	2.0	4.2	11.75	0.30

Variation in Classroom Behavior by Student Characteristics

Sex of Students

Table III-40 below summarizes the significant variance in student behavior by the percentage of male or females in the class. Since the percentage of males or females in a class is highly correlated to class level, as shown in the table below, the way classes vary by sex closely resembles the way they vary by level, with more elaborated speech in classes with more males, and more reading in classes with more males. As with higher levels, overall spontaneous and elaborated speech is higher in classes with more males.

Classes with a higher percentage of females spoke significantly more of the native language to the teacher in class than classes with more males. There was an observed tendency for lower levels also to speak more of the native language, but the difference was not statistically significant.

The discussions held with students after class (see Chapter IV) also show some differences in reported language behavior by sex, suggesting that for cultural or experiential reasons, men speak more English outside of class. More men than women interviewed said that they speak to the teacher outside of class and practice English outside of class. Whatever the reasons for males using more English in class, some of that behavior seems to carry over into the world outside of English class.

Table III-40

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY PERCENT OF MALES AND FEMALES

Behavior	Mean	60% Female 30% Male	31-59% Male 31-59% Female	60% Male 30% Female	F* Ratio	Correlation
Elaborated to Teacher	0.6	0.2	0.5	1.0	7.16	0.35
Elaborated to Student	0.5	—	0.9	0.4	4.14	0.15
L_1 to Teacher	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	--	-0.35
Reading Silently	15.1	9.9	13.3	21.2	12.88	0.40
Other on Task	45.5	50.2	46.3	40.4	0.19	-0.08
ENG—All Spontaneous All Elab.	4.6	3.0	5.4	5.4	6.33	0.33
LANG—Use of L_1 to Student & Teacher	2.2	3.1	1.9	1.7	4.32	-0.32
READ—Read Oral/Read Silent	17.0	11.7	14.9	24.0	12.08	0.40

Literacy and Education

As discussed above, students' literacy and education are closely correlated to class levels they are in, so that most of the changes in teacher behavior by level also change with the literacy and educatonal background of the students. For example, classes with less literate students use more drawings and photos and tangible objects, and deal more with money, numbers, time, and shopping. They tend also to have more content presented in the native language, and more physical response required.

Ethnic Mix

Another classroom characteristic examined was the number of different ethnic groups found in a classroom. From earlier analyses, it was found that ethnic mix is unrelated with the level of the class, but is moderately related to class size. Teachers in more heterogeneous classes use less of the native language; teachers of more heterogeneous classes increase their use of natural/colloquial English. Less of their classroom content is general language or grammar. Use of unison response tends to increase as the number of groups increases. Table III-41 below summarizes the significant differences in teacher behavior by increasing mix of ethnic groups in class.

Table III-42 displays the relationships between student behavior and ethnic mix. One of the most interesting results is that ethnic mix is strongly related to elaborated speech between students. In classes with more ethnic groups, students speak more to each other more in class than in classes containing only one or two ethnic groups. This finding again points to the importance of other students as resources for practicing the language.

Table III-41

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN TEACHER BEHAVIOR BY ETHNIC MIX OF CLASS

		Number of Ethnic Groups					
Behavior Measured	Mean	1	2	3	4+	F Ratio	Correlation
Language Used By Teacher	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	8.9	-.35
Activities:							
Testing	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	7.2	.19
Role Play-Student/ Student*	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	2.8	.19
Other Student/ Student Interaction	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1	3.0	.19
Other Activities	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.5	3.5	-.19
Lesson Focus							
Conversation*	1.5	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.9	.13
Content							
VESL	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	6.6	.20
Other (including grammar, general language)	2.1	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.9	3.8	-.29
Response Required							
Unison*	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.6	4.7	.26
Correction							
Other (including explanation in L_1)*	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.3	3.2	-.12
Teacher Speech Style							
Natural/Colloquial	2.9	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.6	.28
Aide Activities							
Take Students Out of Class	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	3.3	.20

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*Variation is not linear

The use of native language declines as groups become more heterogeneous. These trends can be seen in native language speech for both student-student, and student-teacher interactions. Significant contrasts are also found between for off-task and on-task variables, and for oral reading. The differences both for teachers and students are difficult to interpret and require further inquiry. In summary, ethnic diversity is associated with students speaking English to one another and with a reduction in the use of native language.

Table III-42

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT VARIATION IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY ETHNIC MIX

	Number of Ethnic Groups in a Class				
Student Behavior Variable	1	2	3	4	F*
Elaborated/Student	0.2	0.2	0.7	1.8	4.45
L1/Teacher	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.0	5.40
Reading/Oral	1.2	1.3	3.4	4.8	5.91
Off-Task	2.7	4.7	4.6	1.2	3.52
Reading Total	15.7	15.9	19.2	21.5	0.88
Percent On-Task	96.9	94.8	94.9	98.5	3.11
N of Classes	29.0	55.0	27.0	10.0	

Variations in Student Behavior by Teacher Attitudes, Teacher Gender

An analysis of variance in teacher gender and attitudes toward program variables and student needs (all discussed in detail in Chapter IV), shows that student behaviors are not significantly affected by these teacher attitudes, nor by the gender of the teacher. This finding does not mean, however, that teacher attitudes may never affect student behavior, only that of the particular attitudes which emerged as a result of the teacher discussions, no differences in student behavior were noted. The finding that teacher gender does not affect student behavior significantly is important--

male and female students apparently respond similarly to either male or female teachers.

Summary of Variation

Table 43 on the following page shows the overall patterns of variance in student behaviors by classroom characteristics that have been discussed above. A "yes" under the characteristic for any behavior means that that behavior did vary significantly with the characteristic. A "+yes+" indicates a positive correlation, for example, as class level increases, RS (reading silently) tends to increase. A "-yes+" means that the variation was statistically significant, but negatively correlated, for example, as spontaneous speech increases, class size tends to decrease.

Besides the differences already discussed above, the table shows clearly that on task behavior, both total and percent on task, does not vary with any of the classroom characteristics measured.

Regression Analysis--To What Extent Can Variance in Student Behavior Be Predicted by Classroom and Student Characteristics

Stepwise linear regression analyses were performed to determine how much variation in student behaviors were associated with differences in classroom contexts and student characteristics. The analysis gives an indication which of the contexts or student characteristics are most important in predicting student behaviors.*

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*See Appendix III-B for an explanation of analysis used.

+ = Postive Correlation
- = Negative Correlation

Table III-43

REGRESSION ANALYSIS
PERCENT OF VARIANCE IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR ACCOUNTED FOR BY STUDENT AND CLASSROOM CHARACTERISTICS

	Increasing Class Size	Increasing Class Level	Increasing Average Age	Higher % Male	Higher Ethnic Mix	Increasing Education	Increasing Literacy	Longer Time U.S.	Total % Variance Accounted For
Behavior:									
Spontaneous Average (from CSES)*	-24						3		27
Elaborated Average (from CSES)*				16	4				20
Directed Response				- 3					3
Spontaneous English to Teacher	- 8						3		11
Spontaneous English to Student	- 3								3
Elaborated English to Teacher	- 5					15			20
Elaborated English to Student					6		3		9
Native Language to Teacher	3			- 6	- 4				13
Native Language to Student							-7		7
Reading--Oral					10		5		15
Reading--Silent				3		17			20
Writing						- 6			6
Composites:									
All Spontaneous & Elaborated Speech	-10					8			18
All Speaking of Native Language			8						8
All Reading						17	3		20
Percent on Task							3		3
Level of English (amount & level)		2	-5	30					37

*From Classroom Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech Form

Table 44 shows the results of stepwise regression analyses in predicting student behaviors from classroom and student characteristics. Values in the table represent the variance of the behavior variable which can be accounted for by the classroom or student characteristic. Predictor variables with higher values were entered into the regression equation before those with lower values. The sign associated with the value indicates the direction of the relationship between the variables. For example, when predicting the average spontaneous speech in a classroom, class size accounts for twenty-four percent of the variation. Literacy, in combination with class size, accounts for an additional three percent of the variance. In total, twenty-seven percent of spontaneous speech average can be accounted for by classroom and student characteristics.

Summary of Regression Analysis Results

By looking down the columns of Table 44, those characteristics of classrooms and students which seem to predict student behavior most strongly are readily apparent. Class size appears to be an important factor in students using English spontaneously, or in a lengthy or complicated way, "elaborated." Class size does not predict any behavior which is not dependant on social interaction, such as reading or writing, or generally being on task.

Many of the student and classroom variables are strongly correlated with one another. This explains why some of the variables that would be expected to be important in predicting a given student behavior may not appear in the regression equation. For example, only two variables are shown to predict the average amount of elaborated speech--percent male and ethnic mix. Elaborated speech has already been shown to be highly related to class level, this level would expect to be an important predictor. Class level does not appear in the

Table III-44

SUMMARY OF VARIANCE IN STUDENT BEHAVIOR BY CLASSROOM CHARACTERISTICS

	Overall Mean	Increasing Class Level	Increasing Class Size	Increasing Teacher Experience	Teacher Bilingual	% Male Class	Increasing Education	Increasing Literacy
Behaviors:								
1. DR (Directed Response)	7.9	-yes	no	no	+yes	no	no	no
2. ST (Spontaneous English to Teacher)	0.7	no	-yes	no	no	no	no	+yes
3. SS (Spontaneous English to Student)	0.9	+yes	no	+yes	no	no	+yes	+yes
4. ET (Elaborated English to Teacher)	0.6	+yes	-yes	+yes	no	+yes	+yes	+yes
5. ES (Elaborated English to Student)	0.5	no	no	no	no	+yes	no	no
6. LT (Native Language to Teacher)	0.2	no	no	-yes	+yes	-yes	-yes	no
7. LS (Native Language to Student)	2.0	no	no	no	+yes	no	-yes	-yes
8. RO (Reading Orally)	2.0	no	no	no	no	no	+yes	+yes
9. RS (Reading Silently)	15.1	+yes	no	no	no	no	+yes	+yes
10. W (Writing)	11.5	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
11. O (Other on Task Behavior)	45.5	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
12. OT (Off Task)	3.9	no	no	no	no	no	-yes	-yes
13. Q (Observer Can't Tell Behavior)	2.5	no	+yes	no	no	-yes	no	no
14. QT (Student Speaking to Teacher, Can't Determine Language)	0.1	no	no	no	+yes	-yes	no	no
15. QS (Student Speaking to Student, Can't Determine Language)	0.8	-yes	no	no	no	no	-yes	no
Composite Variables:								
ENG (Spontaneous & Elaborated Var.)	4.6	+yes	-yes	+yes	no	yes	+yes	+yes
LANG (Native Language)	2.2	no	+yes	no	+yes	yes	-yes	
Read (Read Oral & Read Silent)	17.3	+yes	no	no	no	no	+yes	-yes
? (Observer Can't Tell Language)				no	no	no	-yes	+yes
On Task (1,2,3,4,5,8,9,10,11)	85.2	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
Percent On Task	96.0%	no	no	no	no	no	no	no

equation because of its high correlation with percent male in the classroom. As with any set of predictors in a regression equation, the predictors cannot be considered causes. This is obvious in the above example. The proportion of males in a classroom does not determine the amount of elaborated speech, but they can serve as a guide for later hypothesis testing.

Two variables which do not enter into these equations are time in the United States and class level. Class level relates to most of the student behaviors, but its contribution to prediction is overwhelmed by other related variables. Length of time in the United States, however, shows no important relationships with any of the assessed student behaviors.

Though many behaviors vary significantly by class level, when all characteristics of the classroom are taken into account, class proficiency level does not emerge as predicting much variance in student behavior. It appears that those behaviors which are correlated with class level are predicted more by the gender of the students in the class. Even though gender of students in the class and class level are also correlated, the regression shows that, possibly, some feature of "being male" or "being female" in ESL classes is an important variable in classroom behavior. Cultural patterns of behavior, different background experience, such as more education, and differing contacts with English in the United States may be some of the reasons for differences in behavior, although these explanations are very tentative.

The gender of the students in class is significant in predicting several behaviors; the possible reasons for this observation have been discussed above. The extremely high percentage of variation accounted for by gender of the students in predicting the composite variable "level of English" (the amount and communicativeness of language used in class), reinforces the other findings that behaviors may differ by gender. These data do not show that learning is necessarily different by gender, only that classroom behavior, which may or may not be transferred outside of class, differs.

Average age emerges as a significant factor in predicting the use of native language in class—older students use more of their native language. They also tend to be in lower level classes, but, apparently, their age is more significant in predicting whether they will speak their language in class than their English proficiency level. The community survey data discussed in Chapter V below show age to be an important factor in language acquisition.

The ethnic mix of students in class predicts some variance in elaborated average, elaborated speech to other students, use of native language, and oral reading. Students of different ethnic groups do talk to each other in class, and these data suggest that the more mixed a class is, the more likely students are to talk at length to other students in English. In these data, there is no evidence that mixing groups hinders any of the behaviors related to speaking English to the teacher or to other students.

Literacy of students in class is significant not only in predicting "literate" behaviors, such as reading, but also seems to affect how much spontaneous speech students use in class. These data and the finding that literacy is the only background factor found to predict time on task suggest that nonliterate students may not be completely acculturated into the classroom setting, thereby spending a little less time directly on task, and, perhaps, hesitating to speak unless directed to. That nonliterate students are slightly less on task may also suggest, as discussed in the results of teacher behavior, that some parts of the class which involve literacy are simply inaccessible to them, and they cannot follow the lesson or stay "on task."

Previous education is the strongest characteristic in predicting the behaviors measured, predicting not only reading, but strongly predicting elaborated speech, although not predicting spontaneous speech. Of particular interest is the finding that the less education students have had, the more writing is predicted in class. Possibly, less educated students are simply learning how to write while in class. Students with more education may have developed other learning strategies for class than writing. Previous education will be shown in the teacher discussions and in the community survey to be an important factor in acquiring English beyond the classroom.

Time in the U.S. does not predict any of the student behaviors measured. Other experiential factors and features of the classroom such as class size appear to be far more important in student behavior than just the amount of time spent in the U.S.

The column in Table 44 which shows the total variance accounted for by these classroom and student background characteristics, shows that all variables measuring student generated English were predicted quite well by context and student background. For generalized speech variables, 18% or more were predicted by these variables. This means that a significant part of what occurs in classrooms is not in the direct control of the teacher, although the teacher should be aware of their effects on behavior.

Smaller class size and more ethnically mixed classes are related to more English speech in class. Small class size in particular appears to have a positive effect on speaking English. Regression analysis results for each variable measured are discussed below.

Spontaneous Average. Spontaneous Speech Average, as measured by the Class Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech observation form (see observation instrument Appendix III-E and explanation in Chapter II), is predicted strongly by class size, with smaller class predicting more spontaneous speech. Literacy also predicts spontaneous average, with more literate classes speaking more, but the effects of literacy are much less than the effects of class size.

Elaborated Average. The percentage of males in the class is the strongest predictor of elaborated average, measured by the Class Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech observation form. Elaborated speech is also predicted by the ethnic mix of the classes, classes with more ethnic groups predicting somewhat more elaborated speech.

Directed Response. The only predictor of variance for directed response is gender of students—classes with more women predicted more directed response, though this variable only accounts for 3% of the total variance in directed response, suggesting that teacher direction may be more important than student or classroom characteristics in predicting this behavior.

Spontaneous English to Teacher. As with Spontaneous Average, class size, followed by literacy, predicted together 11% of the variance on this behavior measure.

Elaborated English to Teacher. The education of students in the class is the strongest predictor of Elaborated English to Teacher, accounting for 15% of the total variance in this behavior—the higher the education, the more elaborated speech to teacher observed. Class size also predicts elaborated English to teacher, accounting for 5% of the variance. The smaller the class size, the more elaborated speech is likely to occur.

Elaborated English to Student. The characteristics of classes or students which predict elaborated English to other students are the ethnic mix of the class (6%) and the literacy of the students (3%). In classes with more elaborated English, there are likely to be more ethnic groups and students with a higher literacy rate.

Native Language to Teacher. Three characteristics are significant in predicting the amount of native language spoken to the teacher--the percentage of males in the class (-6%), the ethnic mix of the class (-4%), and the class size (+3%). Classes with more women, fewer ethnic groups, and greater numbers of students are associated with speaking more of their native langage to the teacher.

Native Language to Student. Literacy is the only signficant predictor of the use of the native language to other students, and predicted 7% of the total variance in this behavior. In classes where students are less literate, more speaking of the native language to other students is likely to occur.

Reading Orally. Higher ethnic mix accounts for 10% of the variance in reading orally, and literacy 5%.

Reading Silently. Education of students is a strong predictor in whether students read silently in class, predicting 17% of the total variance in reading silently. Three percent of the variance is predicted by a higher percentage of males in the class.

Writing. Education was the only sigificant predictor of writing in class--it predicted 6% of the variance. It is important to note that the less the education of the students in the class, the more writing was predicted.

Composite Variables

Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech. The occurrence of spontaneous or elaborated speech is again strongly predicted by smaller class size (10%), and increasing education of students (8%).

All Speaking of Native Language. When speaking native language to teacher and speaking native language to other students are combined, none of the characteristics which predicted the separated behaviors emerge as significant, rather, only age predicts overall speech in the native language, with older classes speaking more native language, accounting for 8% of the total variance.

All Reading. Reading orally plus reading silently are together predicted only by educational level of the students (17%) and percentage of males (3%); in this combined variable, ethnic mix drops out as a predictor of reading.

Level of English. This composite variable is taken from the classroom observation checklist, and combines the level of English (mechanical, meaningful, or communicative) with the overall amount of student talk in class--a higher "level of English" as measured here would be one in which more communicative speech was occurring, in greater amounts. A very strong predictor of the level of English is the percentage of males in the class (30%), weaker but significant predictors are class level (2%) and average age (5%). Classes with more males, in higher levels, and younger students would likely have a higher composite "level of English."

Percentage of Student Time on Task. Though no characteristic of classes or students strongly predicted time on task, literacy of students in class was the only predictor, (3%).

Relationships Between Classroom Instruction and Student Behavior

The data discussed above show that much student behavior may be determined by previous experiences over which a teacher has no direct control. In this section, the correlations between the teacher behaviors observed and the student behaviors observed will be analysed, to determine which teacher behaviors *are* related to what students do.

To examine how different instructional approaches influence what students do in the classroom, the variables from the classroom checklist (teacher behaviors) were correlated with information from the student behaviors and observations of spontaneous and elaborated speech. Results from this analysis will illuminate general trends, but will not be particularly sensitive to weak relationships. The context variables which were more closely associated with the student behaviors were examined in a similar manner, but were too general to use in this analysis.

The values from the classroom checklist are means of the two observations over three days. The same is true of the student behavior variables. Four analyses were conducted. Correlation matrices were computed for the entire unaltered data set, for the data after holding class level constant, after holding class size constant, and after accounting for the joint influence of class size and level. Class size and level of the class have been identified as important influences on teacher and student behavior throughout this study. Controlling for their influences is important because it enables examination of the underlying relationships between instruction and student behavior. To simplify the correlation matrices, only correlations above 0.15 were considered. This was approximately the level required for statistical significance, and indicates that over two percent of one variable can be predicted by the other. Correlations of note were broken into three categories: (a) betwen 0.15 and 0.25 were considered weak, (b) between 0.25 and 0.33 were considered moderate and (c) above 0.33 were considered strong. Most of the conclusions cited in this analysis are based on moderate or strong relationships.

Classroom Practices Correlated with Students Speaking English

The first group of student behaviors considered student-generated or elaborated English speech. The instructional approaches and techniques which are most strongly associated with student speech are: oral presentation of English, classroom discussion, the use of books, teaching to read and write and conversation, unstructured targeting, instruction in grammatical patterns, requiring spoken responses, using recue as a feedback style, using natural English in the classroom, and teacher being on-task. Classroom practices not assciated with student English speech were: teacher use of native language, recitation, unison targeting, instruction in money, numeracy or time, the presence of English-speaking aides and instruction in native language content.

Many of these results seem self-evident and others are difficult to make sense of. Part of the difficulty can be explained by the influence of class level. Higher level classes tend to have more student-generated speech. Therefore, some of the characteristics of the higher level classes are correlated with English speech. Similarly, characteristics of lower level classes are associated with a lack of student English speech.

To adjust for the influences, the effect of class level was accounted for statistically. When class level is held constant, classroom practices found to be associated with student generated speech were: oral response, discussion, unspecified deskwork, conversation, unstructured targeting, use of natural English and being on-task. Not associated with student English speech were: use of L_1, boardwriting and unison targeting.

Just as some methods of instruction are found only in upper level classes, some are used primarily in small classes. Classroom management may prohibit large groups from doing what may work well in smaller classes. The combined effects of class size and level on students' English speech amends the above list even further. When class size and class level are held constant, successful in eliciting speech were: use of discussion, teacher/student role playing, other student-student interactions, conversation, unstructured targeting, the use of natural English and being on-task. Notice that socially interactive activities seem to encourage use of English, while associated with a lack of student-generated speech were recitation (structured drills) and the use of native language. These findings are not surprising, but lay the groundwork for further inquiry. Of greater interest is what teaching methods elicit student speech at different levels of instruction; this analysis was not performed.

Classroom Practices Associated with On-Task Behavior

The second issue examined looks at which teacher behaviors are associated with students being on-task. After accounting for the influences of class size and class level, the teaching patterns most associated with being on-task are: the use of books, discussion, listening activities and learning to read and write. Associated with students being off-task are individualized instruction, the teaching of survival skills, the use of overly formal English and teaching in the native language content. However, the overall amount of on-task activity was very high, that is, almost all activities that were observed show a high level of student involvement. The activities with lower student involvement are those that don't keep all students actively interested through a lack of personal participation or relevancy.

Influence of Teaching Style

To this point, this chapter has been examining teaching practices and conditions, student behaviors and attitudes, and the relationship between them. As a result, some teaching practices that appear to be related to student-generated English speech and working on-task have been identified. The same teaching methods do not work equally well for everyone, however. It is well documented that teaching style is also an important component in teaching effectiveness.

Teaching style may be defined as the methods and techniques that teachers have chosen and developed that characterize their approach to teaching. Teachers develop patterns of teaching methods for a number of reasons. Their teaching approach may reflect what has worked most effectively for them in the past. Or perhaps it may reflect the materials which are available for use in the classroom, or the program's educational philosophy. Teaching styles are influenced by the teacher's personality and experience, by the subject being taught, by the students and their interaction with the teacher, by the physical conditions within the classroom, and by the larger social context in which the instruction takes place. Thus, teaching styles are adaptive behaviors by teachers which may differ in overall effectiveness.

To examine what classroom practices teachers bring with them from class to class, we closely examined the teachers who were observed teaching in more than one classroom. During the study, nine teachers were observed teaching classes at different levels. To study these teachers' patterns of behaviors, their classroom methods were compared with the teachers who taught classes in the program at the same levels. In this analysis, the levels originally assigned to the classrooms by the program were used, instead of the new levels which were determined through classroom observation. Appendix III-D explains in detail the procedures for this analysis, and charts the statistical results.

There were certain teaching practices which were found to have lower variances for the duplicate group than for the comparison group. In other words, the following practices were things teachers took with them from class to class regardless of level taught: (1) the use of literacy props, (2) the use of tapes, (3) having discussions in the classroom, (4) using role playing between the student and teacher, (5) instruction in grammatical patterns, (6) instruction in vocabulary, (7) work on pronunciation, and (8) certain types of feedback styles. These variables fall into three broad categories: (1) the use of materials, (2) lesson activities and (3) emphasis on formal English skills. In these categories, teacher style appears important. Since the comparison group is composed of teachers in the same programs who are teaching students at comparable levels, the external sources which could account for these results are largely controlled. It is also important to note where differences between the groups do not occur. The two groups do not vary in size of class, methods of English presentation, methods of targeting, lesson content or the nature of the student response required.

The student behaviors which are more consistent for the group of duplicates were (1) time on task, (2) spontaneous English speech, and (3) elaborated English speech. These three student behaviors are probably the most important dependent variables measured in this study, and all are heavily influenced by teacher style. Recall that teacher experience also was related to these behaviors. It appears then that a teacher's personal teaching style is a very important influence on student behaviors and that as teachers gain more experience, they find more effective methods for producing student-generated speech and other on-task activities.

At this point it is important to interject a word of caution. These results are based on a very small number of teachers. The study was not designed to give a full analysis of this question and the teachers used in the analysis were included largely by chance and not design. The results are interesting, but should be regarded as an initial inquiry rather than a final analysis.

IV

FINDINGS OF ON-SITE DISCUSSIONS

Discussions with students, teachers, bilingual personnel and administrators were held at each program visited. This chapter presents the results of these discussions.

Discussions with Students

Discussions with students were held to gather background information on students in the classroom observed, ascertain reasons for program participation, find out individual attitudes toward language learning, and to find out strategies for learning English. The discussions were kept as short as possible, from 5-15 minutes each. Observers talked with the students before or after class, or during breaks. Cooperation was excellent and there were very few refusals.

Students talked with project staff through interpreters if they wished, or in English if they preferred. Using a random numbers table, observers chose four names at random from the class list of each class visited. If a student selected was not attending class that day, another name was chosen; if a student declined to participate, another student was asked. Project staff used discussion guidelines to gather consistent information across sites. These guidelines are included in Appendix IV.

Characteristics of Students Participating in Discussions

As shown in Table IV-1 below, researchers talked with 423 students in 22 programs. Over 56% were under 34 years of age; only 13% were over 45 years of age. The youngest student was 13; the oldest, 68 years. Slightly over half of the students were male. The students represented all the major ethnic groups of Southeast Asian refugees: about one-third Vietnamese, one-fifth Khmer, 17% Lao, 17% Hmong and Mien and 7% Ethnic Chinese.

Sixty percent of the students had been in the United States one year or less, while only 10% had been here more than two years. These students were attending English language training soon after arrival in the U.S. The Community Survey data discussed in Chapter V also indicates that most refugees attend programs within the first few months of their arrival.

The students in programs visited come from a range of educational backgrounds, though most have limited education in their native countries: slightly less than one-third have no previous education, and approximately another one-third have six years or less education. Slightly more than one-third have a seventh grade education or higher; only 2.8% have attended school past the 12th year. In this sample of students, 80.4% are literate in some language, while one-fifth are nonliterate.

Table IV-1

PROFILE OF STUDENTS PARTICIPATING IN PHASE II DISCUSSIONS COMPARED WITH NATIONAL STUDENT PROFILE*

(n = 423)

		Students Interviewed (April-June 1982)	National Profile* (FFY 82)
Age	24 or under	29.1%	31.0%
	25-34	37.6%	39.0%
	35-44	18.1%	19.0%
	45 and over	15.2%	11.0%
Sex	Male	54.1%	58.0%
	Female	45.9%	42.0%
Ethnic Group	Vietnamese	36.5%	36.4%
	Khmer	19.9%	15.6%
	Lao	16.8%	18.8%
	Hmong	15.3%	10.5%
	Mien	4.1%	2.4%
	Ethnic Chinese	7.4%	13.2%
	Other	0.0%	4.0%
Previous Education	0 years	30.5%	15.2%
	1-3 years	9.8%	19.6%
	4-6 years	21.0%	29.5%
	7-12 years	35.9%	31.5%
	13+ years	2.8%	4.2%
Literate in Some Language		80.4%	81.2%
Length of Residency in U.S.	0-6 months	20.2%	30.5%
	7-12 months	40.2%	27.1%
	13-18 months	19.1%	15.1%
	19-24 months	8.7%	16.6%
	25-30 months	5.5%	5.3%
	31-36 months	4.2%	2.7%
	36+ months	2.1%	2.6%

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*From Study of Refugee English Language Training Phase I Survey

Representations of Sample

The students, selected from the classes visited and with whom discussions were held, are fairly representative of Southeast Asian students attending ORR-funded English language programs nationwide as Table IV-1 above shows. The major difference between students nationwide and the group selected for discussions is that the sample is less educated (30.5% have no previous education) than students overall, of whom 15.2% have had no previous formal education. The reason for the larger representation of less educated students is to be found in the site and classroom selection procedure, which focused on students with lower educational background. All but two programs chosen were those that offered ELT to refugees with little educational background; more lower program level classes were observed than upper level classes. In both the group sampled on-site and the entire student population (based on the Phase I survey data), however, about two-thirds of the students have less than six years of education.

Student Strategies and Attitudes Toward Learning English

Table IV-2 shows student responses to questions which reflect attitudes toward learning English, and some of their strategies for acquiring English.

Items 1-4 summarize student study patterns, and some of their use of English outside class. The table presents the number of students who responded in these categories, and the percentage of students responding. About two-thirds of the students said that they practice English outside of class; another one-third said that they do not speak English except in English class.

Table IV-2

RESULTS OF STUDENT DISCUSSIONS
STUDENT STRATEGIES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING ENGLISH

	# Responses	% Students
Practice outside class		
1) Yes	285	67.5
2) No	137	32.5
Who practice English with		
1) Children	24	8.6
2) Other relative	27	9.7
3) American friends	41	14.7
4) Non-American friends	56	20.1
5) Other	58	20.9
6) More than one	72	25.9
Study outside class		
1) Yes	243	67.1
2) No	119	32.9
Talk to teacher outside class		
1) Yes	260	62.8
2) No	154	37.2
Who talk to if problems with schoolwork		
1) No one	46	10.9
2) Relative	56	20.4
3) Teacher	102	24.2
4) Aide or counselor	31	7.4
5) Other	89	21.1
6) More than one above	69	15.9
What think the most difficult part of learning English is		
1) Everything	100	23.6
2) Writing	27	6.4
3) Reading	17	4.0
4) Speaking	51	12.1
5) Understanding	6	1.4
6) Pronunciation	57	13.5
7) Other	97	22.9
8) More than one of above	68	16.1
What think easiest thing in learning English is		
1) Nothing	180	44.9
2) Writing	30	7.5
3) Reading	29	7.2
4) Speaking	39	9.7
5) Understanding	2	.5
6) Copying	12	3.0
7) Other	82	20.4
8) More than one above	27	6.7

That a substantial number of students do not speak English outside class is an important consideration in assessing the effects of what happens in the classroom. It may indicate that these students feel they are not yet ready to speak English, or may have no occasion or need to do so. It also means that for many refugees, the contact with English and English speakers, especially teachers, in ELT programs is their sole means of contact with native English speakers in the first months after arrival. Those students who said they practice English outside class were asked to identify whom they practiced with: 17.3% practice English with their children or relatives; another 13.2% practice with friends who are not "American," that is, native English speakers. This means almost a third of the practice is with non-native English speakers; just as shown in the classroom observations, refugees apparently use each other as support and resources for learning English outside class. Students (14.7%) stated they practice English with Americans they considered friends; another 13.7% mentioned that they practice English with more casual contacts such as people on a bus, doctors, sponsors, or when shopping or at work. Another 17% of students who speak English outside class reported multiple sources for practicing English.

About two-thirds of the students said that they speak to their teachers in English outside the classroom setting. Another two-thirds of the students indicated that they study English on their own outside of class, almost exactly the proportion that say they speak English outside class.

Students reported various sources of help with schoolwork problems: 10.9% said no help is available if they have problems; 31.6%, about one-third, ask teachers or aides in the program for help; 20.4% ask

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relatives; 21.1% report using "other" sources of help for study including friends, other students, books, tapes and dictionaries.

These findings indicate that though many refugee students have little or no contact with English outside the classroom, they do use other resources to help them acquire the language. It appears that many rely on community self-help--that is, help from children and relatives or other refugee friends. Some, but fewer, go to American friends for help and practice; others simply use their English skills in their daily life. A few refugees supplement class by using alternative strategies involving literacy or technology such as study from books, dictionaries, TV or radio.

Table IV-3 on the following page shows the differences in student reported study and practice, or contact patterns outside class by class proficiency levels. Students in higher level classes use English more outside class. It is difficult to state a causal relationship here: students who can speak English better speak it more outside class, and those who speak more outside class have a higher proficiency. It could be that both contact with English outside class aids acquisition and classroom learning facilitates English contacts outside class. Of interest is the fact that there are no significant differences reported by students in different levels as to whether they study at home--lower level students are equally as likely to study. That studying is not related to level but contact (practice) is, suggests that interaction with English speakers may be more closely related to aquisition than solitary study efforts.

Correlations from Student Discussions

Table IV-4 summarizes correlations among selected student acquisition strategies and whether students are male or female. Gender was chosen as a test variable since classroom observations showed that, overall, gender is the strongest predictor of many student speech behaviors, particularly elaborated and spontaneous speech, and is highly correlated to previous education and literacy.

Table IV-3

STUDENT ENGLISH CONTACT BY CLASS PROFICIENCY LEVEL

		Level				Sigificant
	Mean	1	2	3	4	Difference?
Student practices outside of class	.67	.52	.65	.77	.74	yes
Student does not practice outside class	.33	.48	.35	.23	.25	yes
Student studies outside class	.56	.49	.63	.58	.54	no
Talk with teacher outside class	.61	.49	.56	.67	.72	yes

In Table IV-4, "o" indicates that no significant correlation was found between the variables, "+" a weak but significant correlation, "++" a stronger correlation, and "+++" a very strong correlation.

As the table shows, even though the same percentage of students said they practice English outside class as said they study outside school, there was no relation between the behaviors. In other words, those students who said they study outside class are not predictably those who said they actually practice English outside class. However, there is a strong correlation between practicing English outside school and talking to the teacher outside class--those students who told us they speak to the teacher outsi [illegible] are likely to be the same ones who practice outside school. Also, [illegible] far more likely to practice outside of class than females.

Table IV-4

INTERCORRELATIONS FROM STUDENT DISCUSSIONS

	Yes Practice English Outside Class	Yes Study Outside Class	Yes Talk w/Teacher Outside Class	% Male
Practice English Outside Class	---	o	+++	+++
Study Outside Class	---	---	o	o
Talk w/Teacher Outside Class	---	---	o	+++
% Male	---	---	o	+++

Key: No significant correlations: o

Negative correlations:

-	p	.05
- -	p	.01
- - -	p	.001

Positive correlations:

+	p	.05
+ +	p	.01
+ + +	p	.001

Males also speak significantly more to the teacher outside class than do females. However, as the table also shows, there is no significant difference between males and females in whether they study outside of class. These data suggest that men may have access to different strategies for learning, being far more likely to use English outside a classroom setting. The finding that studying outside of class does not differ by gender suggests that background characteristics such as education or cultural variables, which have been shown to be highly correlated to gender rather than hard to quantify "motivation," may account for some differences in English acquisition between men and women noted in other parts of this study.

Table IV-2 above shows the results of two attitude variables reported by students. Project staff usually asked what aspects of learning English students thought were "hardest" and "easiest" rather than asking whether students liked learning, the program, their teacher, etc. This question was chosen because it was felt that the latter type of question might be too leading, and students might be uncomfortable discussing any negative attitudes with outsiders.

As the table shows, 39.7%, or over one-third of the students, said that "everything" was hard about learning English, and 10.4% said the most difficult aspect had to do with literacy, that is, reading or writing. A very small percentage thought that understanding was most difficult; 13.5% mentioned pronunciation as the most difficult aspect of English; and 22.9% mentioned miscellaneous other things as being "most difficult," including vocabulary, specific grammatical features, spelling, strange alphabet, memorizing. On the other hand, almost half, or 42.6%, of the students said "nothing" was easy about learning English; 13.8% mentioned reading and writing as easiest; 9.2% speaking.; but only 5% understanding. Other categories, such as listening, repeating, numbers, and particular grammatical features, were mentioned as "easiest" by 19.4%.

The distribution of these attitudes indicates that there is apparently much individual variation in student attitudes toward learning English. More importantly, a large proportion of students feel that much about "English," or learning English, is not easy. Remember that classroom observations discussed in Chapter II, show a very high rate of on-task behavior, and teachers noted a very high rate of attendance among refugee students. Also, many students study outside of class and practice outside class. This suggests that even though these students are very recent arrivals and language acquisition is felt by many to be difficult, once students are attending programs, they are directed toward the goal of learning English.

Student Program Participation

This section will discuss findings from the student discussions on how refugees learn about the program, why they choose it, how they get there, and how long they stay in programs. Table IV-5 summarizes student responses relating to program participation. Fifty-six percent learned of the program from a friend, relative or sponsor; another 32.2% indicated that they learned about the program from other sources, including Volags (Voluntary Agencies), MAAS, church groups and "just learning" about the program. Only 10.5% of the students indicated they learned about the program by referral through a welfare agency.

Almost half of the students said they chose the program simply "to learn English" or for other reasons, including teachers who speak their language, good reputation or good teachers, because the school is free, or because the school provides childcare. About a quarter of the students said they chose the program they were attending because they were referred by friends, relatives, or agencies. Another 21.3% said they go to the particular program because it is close by. Very few indicated they chose the program because it was the only program available. These discussions suggest that recently arrived refugees choose programs for the most part based on

Table IV-5

PROGRAM PARTICIPATION--RESULTS OF STUDENT DISCUSSIONS

Student Program Participation	Number of Respondents	% of Students
How learned about program		
1) Friend	112	26.7
2) Relative	74	17.7
3) Sponsor	53	12.6
4) Welfare referral	44	10.5
5) Other	136	32.2
Why chose this program		
1) Because of referral, same as above	96	23.0
2) Program is close by	89	21.3
3) To learn English	69	16.5
4) Only program available	29	6.9
5) Other	135	32.3
How to get to school		
1) Bus	190	44.9
2) Walk	139	32.9
3) Car	74	17.5
4) Other	20	4.7
How long in this program (months)		
1	96	23.3
2	56	13.6
3	59	14.3
4	32	7.8
5	21	5.1
6	50	12.1
7	17	4.1
8	17	4.1
9	19	4.6
10	3	0.7
11	2	0.5
12	21	5.1
13-18	6	1.4
Over 18	13	3.2

requirement, referral or convenience, and less often on the reputed merits of the program. The importance of accessibility and convenience is emphasized by the fact that over three-fourths of the students said they walk or take the bus to school.

In this sample, 51.2% of the students had been in the program three months, about one term or less, 76.2% of the students had been in the program less than six months, and only a small fraction, 4.6%, had been attending the program more than a year. The large proportion of students in the program under six months suggests a rapid turnover of students within programs and participation in ELT programs soon after arrival.

Discussions with Teachers

Project staff talked with the teacher from each class observed, a total of 139 teachers. The discussion served several purposes; they provided background information on the teacher so that the effects of the teacher background characteristics on classes observed could be measured. The discussions also gathered teacher views of effective ESL instructional approaches for refugees, and their perceptions of what student characteristics contribute to or inhibit language learning. Teachers also dicussed their role in and attitudes toward the ELT program.

Project staff used consistent guidelines, included in Appendix IV, for these discussions. Teachers were assured that the discussions were confidential, and that no individual responses would be identified. Overall, teachers were extremely cooperative and the discussions provided many informative viewpoints on English language training for refugees.

Teacher Perceptions of Student Attendance

Table IV-6 shows teacher reports of student attendance rates and perceived reasons for non-attendance.

Teachers' estimates of daily classroom attendance rates averages 80.8%. Most teachers (83.6%) stated that students come to class because they are motivated; only 16.4% stated that students come to class because attendance is mandatory. The table shows the percentage of teachers who mentioned various reasons for non-attendance; some teachers mentioned several reasons. The most often mentioned reason for not coming to class was illness, followed by appointments (welfare, doctor, etc.) and working. Next most frequently mentioned were lack of transportation and childcare, followed by frustration, lack of motivation, work search, family problems, or being too tired.

From the teachers' information, it appears that refugees who do not attend class have good reasons for not coming--most are attending to health problems or are actually working or looking for work. External barriers such as inavailability of childcare and transportation do seem to prevent some students from attending class. Again, difficult to measure affective/motivational factors may also play some part in attendance.

Teacher Views of Important Teacher Characteristics

Teachers were asked what combination of traits or experience are best for teachers of English to refugees.

Teachers mentioned personal attributes as important more often than they mentioned specific knowledge and experience in ESL. Those teachers who mentioned personal attributes feel it is important for the instructor to be patient, emphathetic, committed, flexible, and outgoing, and have a sense of humor.

Table IV-6

TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENT ATTENDANCE

Student Attendance	% of Teachers Mentioning:
Reasons for Coming:	
Required	16.4
Motivation/learn English	83.6
Reasons for Non-Attendance*	
Illness	45.3
Working	25.2
Appointment	23.7
Child care	19.4
Transportation	18.0
Frustrated/not motivated	14.4
Looking for work	10.8
Tired	8.6
Family problems	7.9
Welfare cut	7.9
Moved	4.3
Weather	4.3
Attending other programs	2.9
Helping friends/relatives	2.9
Other	10.1
Average Daily Attendance:	
Over 75%	78.8
50-75%	14.8
50% or under	7.4
Overall average attendance	80.8

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*These categories are not mutually exclusive. Respondents could mention more than one category.

Next frequently, ESL experience and training is considered important, followed by knowledge and understanding of refugee culture. According to these teachers, both student and teacher affective factors appear to influence language learning. These traits may of course be results of previous experiences and background, but these findings point again to the importance of the social aspects of English use in the classroom.

Barriers to Effective Teaching

Teachers mentioned many different factors which they believe inhibit effectiveness as a teacher. These fall mainly into three categories: program or external constraints, student characteristics, and teacher characteristics. Program or external constraints that teachers feel impede effective teaching are job insecurity, time limitations on number of hours a student can study, large class size, multi-level classes and high turnover, lack of bilingual help, no preparation time, inadequate materials, need for better training and staff communication, and lack of curriculum.

The perceptions of large class size as disadvantageous adds to the evidence of classroom observations that smaller classes promote more English speech. The classrooms observations also corroborate the teachers' perception that there is a lack of bilingual help—only one in ten classes observed had a bilingual aide for any part of the class period.

Student characteristics that teachers say impede teaching effectiveness are essentially the same as those they feel inhibit student success: cultural differences, lack of literacy and education, lack of contact with English outside class. Some ELT teachers mentioned personal constraints as inhibiting teaching, including training or experience, and English pronunciation (bilingual teachers).

Table IV-7 shows teacher responses to questions about their attitudes and relationship to the program. As the table shows, over two-thirds of the teachers consistently gave indications of a positive relationship with the program, feel they are supported, have influence on decision making, communicate with other teachers, and follow a program curriculum. The other one-third responded negatively to these questions.

The results of the items on Table IV-7 were cross-tabulated to see if responses were intercorrelated. No significant correlation was found between the items, that is, teachers responding "no" to one question were just as likely to respond "yes" to another question—these attitudes appear not to be interrelated.

Table IV-7

TEACHER DISCUSSION: THE TEACHER'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE PROGRAM

	% Yes	% No
Follow a curriculum	68.1	31.9
Feel they have enough materials, support	69.7	27.7
Feel environment is appropriate	69.7	29.3
Know what other teachers in program are doing	73.6	23.0
Feel they have some influence on decision making in program	60.7	39.3
Are ever evaluated	73.6	25.6
Get feedback on evaluation	64.2	35.8

Variance in Student Classroom Behaviors by Selected Student and Teacher Interview Responses

An analysis of variance was performed on the student behavior measures by selected responses to teacher and student interviews. These questions were (1) whether or not teacher follows a curriculum, (2) whether or not teacher feels she or he is supported, (3) whether students talk with teacners, and (4) whether students practice outside class.

No significant variation was found in students' classroom behavior whether or not the teacher followed a curriculum or felt they were supported adequately. Some significant variations in class behavior were found by reported student behavior outside class. Students who do not talk to teachers outside class and students who do not practice outside class are in classes which use more "Directed Response" in class, possibly a reflection of lower English proficiency, since Directed Response has been shown to be one function of level.

As might be expected, students who speak to the teacher in class also tend to talk more with the teacher outside class, whereas students who do not talk to their teachers use more of the native language in class. More oral and silent reading is used in class by students who speak with their teacher outside of class, likely also a function of class level, since those who don't talk to their teacher in English outside class and don't practice outside class read significantly less in class. Those students who do not talk to the teacher in English outside class are significantly more often off-task in class than those who speak English to their teachers. Also, those students who do not practice English outside class or with the teacher don't speak English as much in class.

These correlations are not surprising, since they are so closely related to measured class level, and therefore "proficiency"--students whose English ability is limited are just less likely to speak English, inside or outside class. What is important, however, is that these correlations strongly suggest that speech patterns measured in classrooms reflect English language behavior outside class.

Discussions with Bilingual Staff

Discussions were held with 17 bilingual staff persons in seven programs. These discussions were meant to inform questions about the tasks and problems of bilingual staff in programs. Typically, bilingual personnel were extremely busy, and some could not schedule discussion time for this study; the bilingual staff represented capabilities in Vietnamese, Hmong, Khmer, Lao, and Chinese languages. All but one had an education of high school or above, and all but one had had previous experience in resettlement or ESL work.

Bilingual staff perform a variety of functions including interpreting, teaching or acting as teachers and doing clerical work, intake, and counseling. Many are asked to fill several of these functions in the program. On the average, these aides said they spend 45% of their time actually in the classroom. Most of the bilinguals have contact with students outside of class or program--often, students call them at home. Students come to bilingual personnel for all types of assistance both in language and help and referral in solving everyday problems. Those bilingual staff who mentioned problems with their work indicated language problems, cultural differences and understanding the teachers as among their difficulties. Almost all the bilinguals, however, feel that the programs and teachers support them in their work and respond to their suggestions.

The bilinguals said that several different kinds of language skills are needed by members of their communities; they most often mentioned that most communities need survival English and language skills to help find work and live in the community. Most feel that more emphasis should be given to speaking than writing, though about a third think equal emphasis should be given to speaking and reading/writing skills.

Bilingual personnel suggested ways to best fill students needs, including having two teachers, one from the ethnic group and one native English speaker, teaching survival skills, cutting out extras and spending more time on improved training.

Discussions with Program Administrators

During the program visits, discussions were held with the person directly responsible for supervision or coordination of English language training for refugees, as well as with administrators of special programs within the general programs, and administrators of additional sites for English language training, such as neighborhood branches of the institution. In cities where it was impossible to conduct an in-depth observations at all the major English language training programs for refugees, additional discussions were also held with administrators of other programs. These discussions elicited information on program features and program management, and administrative opinions on strengths and problems of particular programs and possible solutions to these problems. Project staff talked to 32 administrators in the 22 programs visited. Though guidelines for discussions with administrators were also used (see Appendix IV), the in-depth, more unstructured nature of the interviews was not suitable for coding and data analysis in the same way as information from student and teacher interviews. Therefore, results were grouped by topic and synthesized.

Administrators in ELT programs represent a wide range of experience in social services, education, and administration. The majority have had previous experience administering or teaching ESL, and many hold graduate degrees in ESL, linguistics, or education. Four of the administrators are bilingual in one or more of the Southeast Asian languages.

Administrator Roles

Administrators of English language training programs for refugees fill many roles; their functions often vary with the size of the program and the degree of specialization of their position. Most administrators see their primary responsibilities as supervising and coordinating teachers, choosing or developing curriculum, managing resources and contracts, and acting as liaisons with state and other refugee agencies. Many administrators feel that too much of their time is spent on proposal writing, recordkeeping, budgeting and other requirements of contracts, and too little is spent on the supervisory needs of the actual instructional programs.

Barriers to Effective English Language Training; Suggested Solutions

These administrators identified several problem areas in ESL delivery for refugee students. They can be categorized as: (1) problems resulting from inadequate funding, (2) state or local educational policy, and (3) barriers resulting from the backgrounds of the students themselves.

Although some of the problems are program-specific, there is a broad consensus among the administrators as to the major problems. Inadequate funding and uncertain funding cycles are most frequently mentioned as barriers to providing high quality English language training for refugees. Related to funding problems are lack of full-time teaching staff, large class size, and inadequate staff training.

Maximizing Resources. Administrators noted that a number of creative solutions are being tried by their programs to overcome these barriers to effective ELT. Larger programs such as community college systems have combined several funding sources with ORR funds, such as local community college funds, or ABE and CETA monies, to provide continuing ESL training to those refugees who still need English training, but whose eligibility for ORR funded programs may have expired. These administrators felt there is a need for continuing English language training beyond the survival level, a need that many administrators believe will continue for many years to come.

Administrators mentioned other ways they have maximized limited funds, such as making an agreement within a local area that certain programs will specialize in one sort of training, for example literacy training or vocational ESL, thus making efficient use of teachers or aides who are trained in these special areas. To solve problems of inadequate staffing due to limited resources, some programs have set up volunteer components which have met with varying degrees of success according to the administrators interviewed. The factor felt to be most important in implementing successful volunteer programs is the use of a paid volunteer coordinator, since volunteers need adequate training and supervision. Volunteers are used by programs both to support teachers (as clerical or instructional aides), to tutor, and to actually instruct classes. Two programs utilize VISTA volunteers as social service assistants, or tutors and instructors. An alternative solution for understaffed classes that has been tried successfully by a few programs is using student-teachers from TESOL programs at local universities; the students receive credit for their work in the program.

Policy Barriers, Solutions Tried. Policy factors which many administrators say hinder effective English language training include state imposed time limits on hours of instruction, frequent change in direction or emphasis of state plans, and uncertain funding cycles which provide little notice of change and make long-range planning difficult. Several administrators noted that their programs or states have softened the impact of uncertain funding cycles and limitations on student attendance hours by judiciously using supplementary, non-ORR funds. Others have implemented forward-funding cycles to insure that at least quarterly planning is possible. Local or state institutional policies regarding the hiring of full-time personnel were seen by some as severely affecting the quality of the services they could provide, since many excellent well-trained teachers in community college systems are not permitted to work beyond a small number of hours, even though there is a shortage of qualified teachers in some areas with large refugee populations.

Barriers Related to Student Background. Administrators also mentioned that student background and economic circumstances have an impact on the effectiveness of training provided. Lack of previous education is often mentioned, as well as the need for transportation and child care. From an administrative point of view, however, those background factors were seen to be far less important at the program level than the factors affecting funding, planning, and staffing.

Teacher Qualifications and Background

There is some variation of opinion among adminstrators regarding which teacher characteristics or backgrounds are best for Southeast Asian refugee students with little or no educational background. For example, though many administrators believe that experience with adults is desirable for teachers in their programs, others are of the strong opinion that experience in elementary education is most beneficial to low level students. Most administrators see previous ESL experience as a desirable or required qualification, along with background in working with refugees or different cultural groups. Though not as important as previous experience, formal training in ESL or linguistics is also seen as helpful. There was a broad consensus that individuals teaching refugee students must be patient, empathetic, and culturally sensitive. Administrators and teachers tend to mention the same qualifications for teachers, though administrators put more emphasis on experience, while teachers placed greater emphasis on personality traits.

Staff Management and Training

In the programs visited, staff management styles range from quite formal and structured to very informal and unstructured, and vary with the size of the program (the larger being more structured), the accessibility of central meeting places, and the management style of the administrators. Informal communication is considered as effective as more formal means of communication if administrators remain accessible to teachers and receptive to problems. In some of the programs visited, staff meetings are a regularly scheduled activity, while in others staff meetings are held only when needed. In some of the smaller programs, staff meet informally so often that they feel no need for more structured meetings.

Administrators have different ways of structuring visiting classes and evaluation. Some administrators visit classes only rarely, while others visit classes weekly or daily.

Only six of the programs visited use formal evaluation, most administrators preferring more informal teacher evaluation, because of time restrictions, lack of evaluation procedures, or personal preference. In general, smaller programs located in one site use more informal staff management, while those programs which are very large or are part of a large institution use more formally articulated and regulated management approaches. As seen in Phase I survey results and teacher interviews, programs seem to place more emphasis on the process of delivering English language training than on evaluation or outcome measures.

Training

These programs offer various opportunities for staff training. In some programs, staff in-service training is a high priority, and workshops in new or specialized ESL aproaches and techniques are given on a regular basis. Many programs rely heavily on meetings of professional organizations, particular state affiliates of TESOL, to provide continuing education for staff members. A few programs take advantage of training offered by State agencies, and in one case, training had been offered by the ORR regional office.

Other administrators feel that their budgets or time do not allow for extensive staff training, and staff must arrange training individually, based on personal interests or needs.

Curricula

Of the 22 programs visited, administrators of only four said that their program has no written curriculum, or that the curriculum was still being developed. All other programs have a written curriculum, though the curricula vary in scope and specificity. Many programs use State guidelines as their curriculum guides, or as a basis for their curriculum development. Some programs do recommend certain books or materials, and a few even have curricula designed around particular required books. Many curriculum guidelines are statements of competency objectives by level. The competency goals in these types of curriculum guidelines usually include both linguistic skills and life "survival" skills for refugees. Many administrators experienced in refugee education see this kind of competency based curriculum as most effective for refugee students. There is a broad consensus among administrators that teachers should have discretion in the materials and methods that they use in implementing the required curriculum. (The classroom observations show a wide range of materials and methods is in use across programs.)

Student Assessment and Placement

Administrators indicated that several kinds of student placement and assessment are used by their programs. However, administrators repeatedly emphasized the need for an assessment and placement tool that would be appropriate for students with little educational background.

Most programs use, at the minimum, an oral interview to initially place students. Many programs use *only* an oral interview, and no written assessment, either because there is no time or staff to administrate a test, or they feel it is unnecessary. Some programs use background information on age and previous education, along with an oral interview to place students, and have found it quite successful. The results of the classroom observations, student interviews and community survey of this study suggest that using background information on education, literacy and age to help place students, particularly if no other assessment tool can be used, may help in placing students appropriately.

Of those programs using written tests to place students initially or move them between levels, most use instruments prepared by the program. The assessment tools are often very specific to the student population served by the program. Other programs use standardized tests, including the John Test, STEL test, Ilyin Oral Interview, and, for higher levels, the Michigan Test. Programs who have a large number of non-literate students often test or ascertain students' literacy skills before placement, since administrators generally feel non-literate students should be grouped together because of their special instructional needs. Only one program visited does systematic follow-up on students after departure from the program. Many administrators indicated that follow-up would help them demonstrate the effectiveness of their programs, but is virtually impossible to conduct because of staff time and expense required and mobility of the student population.

Effective Approaches and Materials for Southeast Asian Refugees with Little Educational Background

Because the SRELT study focus is on English language training for refugees, particularly for refugees with limited educational backgrounds, administrators were asked which teaching approaches and materials they consider to be most effective for these students. There is a broad consensus that one particularly successful approach in these classrooms is Total Physical Response. Administrators suggest the use of real objects and photographs in class, and most agree that the initial emphasis for non-literate students should be on oral language rather than written language. Administrators feel that basic, survival literacy should also be introduced to these students.

A striking difference of opinion was voiced by an administrator of a program run by a mutual assistance organization whose students are almost exclusively persons with little literacy or educational experience; this program uses traditional methods of writing, copying, translation, rote repetition and memorization as an introduction to English, since in their opinion, students and teachers are most comfortable with the traditional teaching approaches used in their native country.

Program Planning

Programs which provided English language training before the recent entry of large numbers of Southeast Asian refugees have seen many changes in the direction of their programs and English language training in general. Other programs have been created specifically to fill the need for refugee English language training. Both programs are undergoing continual change as budgets, policies and student populations change.

Many administrators note that their programs have become more structured and better organized since 1978. They feel curricula are better articulated, materials are more available and standardized, and special classes have been instituted to meet special needs of incoming groups. Most programs have responded to the changing needs of their student populations and now have special literacy classes for those recent refugees with little or no previous education. Others have instituted vocational ESL and provide more job orientation than previously. In recent months, there has been a decline in student attendance in some programs, because of outmigration to other areas, or funding cutbacks. The funding cutbacks have meant some reduction in auxiliary services previously offered within the context of the English language training program. Administrators say that programs have responded to a decrease in funding by reducing the number of teachers, offering fewer levels or types of classes, increasing class size, or reducing the number of class hours offered.

Administrators see their programs as responsive and constantly changing to meet the needs of their clientele. The directions their programs will take in the next few years depend, most believe, on the decisions of the makers of refugee policy at a national and state level, and on the numbers of refugees they will continue to serve. Many of the administrators of smaller programs believe that their programs will be phased out in the next few years, while the administrators of the larger programs, particularly community colleges, feel that English language training will be offered as long as there is a need for it in the local community.

Strengths of Programs

Administators were asked to identify those elements of their programs which they believe are particularly strong or successful. The most frequently mentioned program strength is a good teaching staff. Skilled and committed staff are considered important program assets. Some program administrators feel that the greatest strengths of their program are good coordination with other services for refugees, and performing well in the important social function that an ESL program can play in the refugee adjustment process.

Other administrators see the strengths of their programs in specialized classes that they offer, such as what they consider to be outstanding literacy training or an excellent vocational education program, or in particularly innovative or successful program features, such as a very successful volunteer program, an excellent learning resource center, or a credit-tuition program.

Administrators generally identify several components of their program as being particularly strong. However, many simply state that the program's strength is serving student needs, either the students overall or a specific student, such as a very low level nonliterate or new arrival. It is important to note that different programs have different strengths, and these might be considered in placing refugees in certain programs within a city, for example, or in creating cooperative efforts for English language training delivery or staff training. Discussions with administrators show that many creative and effective structures, methods, and techniques have been developed within programs for refugee students, and efficient sharing of information among programs is likely to be beneficial for all.

V

COMMUNITY SURVEY

Surveys of Southeast Asian households were conducted in four of the eight cities in which ELT programs were visited: Twin Cities, Denver, Stockton and Seattle. These surveys were designed to: (1) provide background demographic information about the refugee communities being served by ELT programs; (2) gather information about ELT service utilization in these communities; and (3) measure development of refugees' English language proficiency. In designing the overall study, it became clear that assessing the impact of ELT requires information about both program participants and non-participants; controlled comparisons of the English proficiency of ELT recipients and non-recipients are needed to assess the impact of the programs.

Method

Resource constraints necessitated a small, relatively simple survey. A total of no more than about four hundred households could be surveyed, approximately 100 in each city. Furthermore, because of this limited sample size, all Southeast Asian refugee groups could not be included. Three groups of refugees were therefore selected: Vietnamese nationals (including both ethnic Vietnamese and ethnic Chinese), Cambodians and Hmong (from Laos).

Questionnaires were developed which bilingual interviewers used to collect information about all individuals in a household (operationally defined as all persons sharing the domicile at the time of the interview). Only one person per household was directly interviewed (typically a senior male adult), who was asked a few questions about the household as a whole and then a series of parallel questions about each adult member of the household. Previous household surveys of this type with Southeast Asians (e.g., Reder, 1981; Pullen, 1982) have found this to be an effective and efficient means of collecting information about both the household and its members.

Sample Design and Selection

The population was sampled from Vietnamese, Cambodian and Hmong households in the four cities which had resided in the given city at least one year and in the United States no more than three years as of the interview date. These residence requirements were imposed to focus the survey on adults most likely to have been served by current ELT programs for refugees (cf Reder, Nelson and Arter, 1982).

A 2:1 mix of households listed in current telephone directories and households living in large "clusters" was sampled in each city (in Twin Cities, listings from both the Minneapolis and St. Paul directories were used). Thus, of the 100 households interviewed in each city, 67 and 33 households, respectively, comprised the "directory" and "cluster" subsamples, as shown in Table V-1.

Directory subsamples were drawn randomly from published listings of potential Vietnamese, Cambodian and Hmong surnames. The sizes of the three groups' lists were used to estimate the relative sizes of the local groups, and subsamples were drawn in proportional sizes, as displayed in Table V-1. A list of "clusters" for each population group was developed in each city. Interviewers made rounds through randomly assigned clusters in a fixed order, searching for eligible households.

Table V-1

HOUSEHOLDS IN CITY AND POPULATION GROUP AND SUBSAMPLE TYPE

SAMPLE DESIGN

City	Subsample TOTAL	Subsample Directory	Subsample Cluster	Population Group Directory Listings For Vietnamese	Population Group Directory Listings For Cambodian	Population Group Directory Listings For Hmong
Twin Cities	100	67	33	513	162	925
Denver	100	67	33	333	83	193
Stockton	100	67	33	137	93	114
Seattle	100	67	33	229	118	87
TOTAL	400 (100%)	268 (67%)	132 (33%)			

SAMPLE COMPOSITION

City	Subsample TOTAL	Subsample Directory	Subsample Cluster	Population Group Directory Listings For Vietnamese	Population Group Directory Listings For Cambodian	Population Group Directory Listings For Hmong
Twin Cities	119	78	41	48	12	59
Denver	96	64	32	51	15	30
Stockton	91	66	25	43	29	19
Seattle	115	70	45	62	26	27
TOTAL	421 (100%)	278 (66%)	143 (34%)	204 (48.5%)	82 (19.5%)	135 (32.1%)

For households selected from a directory, initial telephone contact was made by a bilingual assistant. Up to three calls were made to contact each sampled household, at varying times of day and days of the week. If the family contacted through the published listing had a different address (but the same telephone number), the household was considered eligible providing that the other requirements were met. If another household had the sampled phone number, it was considered not eligible. If the residency requirements for the city and the U.S. were satisfied, the household was invited to participate, after being assured that participation was voluntary. The purpose of the study was carefully explained. Overall, cooperation was excellent and refusals were few. If the person agreed to participate, an appointment was scheduled for an in-home interview.

For households in the "cluster" subsample, the procedure was similar. All cluster visits were made during evenings or weekends. If an adult member of the selected population group was home, the purpose of the study was carefully explained. If the residency criteria were met, participation in the study was invited; if the person agreed to participate, the interview was conducted immediately. If no one was home, or if the household was not eligible or did not wish to participate, the interviewer moved on to the next unit in the cluster.

Because multiple interviewers worked simultaneously over a short period of time, it was not practical to stop the survey in a city after exactly 100 eligible households had been interviewed; a substantial number of moved or otherwise ineligible households was encountered on the telephone and walking lists, and interviewers did not know how others were doing with their assigned lists. Thus, a slightly larger number of interviews was completed than had been planned, as shown in Table V-1. Nevertheless, the target mixture of subsamples was closely matched, and data were retained from all eligible households interviewed.

The purpose of utilizing the two sampling procedures was to minimize the inevitable bias of working from telephone directories alone. Techniques are available for weighting the subsamples so as to minimize the sampling bias, but preliminary analyses have not indicated a strong need to do so for this report. The two subsamples will therefore be pooled for the remainder of this report.

Interview Instrumentation and Procedure

Questionnaires were developed, translated into Vietnamese, Khmer and Hmong language forms, and pilot tested in Portland. After revision, the instruments went through the mandatory Federal OMB Clearance procedure. A copy of the English version is included in Appendix V.

The interviews were conducted in either Vietnamese, Khmer or Hmong by carefully trained bilingual assistants. After explaining the purpose of the survey and answering any questions that arose, the interviewer asked a few questions about the household as a whole:

- o number of people
- o number of adults (age 20 or older)
- o how long the household had lived in the domicile
- o was there a telephone
- o was any member of the household receiving public assistance (AFDC, GA or other cash assistance from the government)

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The interviewer then asked a number of parallel questions about each adult (20 or older) member of the household:

- age, gender
- years of education (native country), languages spoken, languages read or written
- arrival dates in U.S. and local city
- presently working? ever worked in U.S.?
- English proficiency:

English proficiency:	1st month in U.S.	Current
general rating (5 pt. scale)		
competency 1 (yes/no)		
competency 2 (yes/no)		
competency 3 (yes/no)		
competency 4 (yes/no)		

- amount of English language training:
  - in native country ______________________________
  - in refugee camps ______________________________
  - in U.S. (in other cities) ____________________
  - in local city (for each program) ________________

English Proficiency Measures

Since the focus of the survey was on ELT and English acquisition, let's look more closely at how information was collected on these critical items. English proficiency measures were based on self-report. The respondent rated the English proficiencies and competencies of himself or herself as well as those of other adult household members. Five ratings at each of two points in time (first month in the U.S. and the present) were elicited for each adult (ten ratings per person in all). Ratings of general proficiency ("How well does __________ speak English?") were made on a five point scale. The alternatives were stated orally before each rating was made: "not at all," "just a few words," "a little," "fair" or "well."

In addition, four specific competencies were rated on a yes/no basis:

1. "Can __________ speak English well enough to take the bus, make change, get help by him/herself in an emergency?"
2. "Can __________ carry on simple English conversations with friends?"
3. "Can ___________ carry on simple English conversations with strangers?
4. "Can ___________ speak English well enough to look for a job by him/herself?" .

Although such subjective ratings of general proficiencies and specific competencies may not be as reliable as standardized test scores or direct performance measures, previous surveys of refugee populations in the U.S. have relied on them exclusively. Obtaining large-sample measures of other kinds has not proved to be feasible in past studies. Furthermore, studies such as those of Pullen (1982) and Reder (1981) have demonstrated the internal consistency and descriptive utility of such self-report measures. There is some new evidence that suggests that such ratings have substantial validity when compared with more objective measures. Reder, Green and Sweeney (1983) studied a cohort of Hmong refugees whose English skills are being tracked over a period of time. The Hmong adults in the study had their English proficiency measured in a variety of ways, including the self-reported ratings described above as well as a standardized test (the B.E.S.T. test, developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics) of English language capabilities developed specifically for Southeast Asians. Reder, et al. report a correlation, for example, of about 0.8 between the B.E.S.T. test scores and the self-reported rating of general English proficiency. There is thus good reason to suppose the measures reported here are suitably valid. Further information on this is available in Phase III of this Project, in which both the B.E.S.T. test and self-reported proficiency measures were administered to a sample of refugee adults.

ELT Participation

Individuals' participation in ELT was reported in several categories. The duration and intensity of instruction were reported for each program adults had attended, including programs in their native country, in refugee camps and in the United States. For each location, the duration and intensity of training taken were reported in weeks (or months) and hours per week. From these data, the number of hours of service received in each location was computed.

Results

Household Characteristics

Household size. The distribution of the 421 sampled households across cities and ethnic groups was displayed above in Table V-1. The average household size is about 5.6 persons; Table V-2 displays a breakdown of average household size by city and population group.

Average household size is largest in Stockton and in Hmong households, and smallest in Seattle and in Cambodian households. But these inter-city and inter-population differences are not consistent everywhere in the table; the Hmong have the smallest households in the Denver sample, for example. A two-way analysis of variance, shown in Table V-3, indicates that the effects

Table V-2

HOUSEHOLD SIZE

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	4.83	5.58	6.02	5.50
Denver	5.78	5.20	4.93	5.43
Stockton	6.62	5.83	7.58	6.57
Seattle	4.94	4.19	6.64	5.14
ALL CITIES	5.47	5.16	6.11	5.62

Table V-3

EXAMPLE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE:

HOUSEHOLD SIZE

Source & Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Significance
City	143.1	3	47.7	7.5	.001
Population Growth	75.6	2	37.8	6.0	.001
City x Population	71.7	.6	12.0	1.9	.08
Residual	2466.6	390	6.3		
TOTAL	2732.1	401	6.8		

of both city and population group are highly significant ($p < .001$), whereas the interaction between city and population group is not statistically significant (p .05), the results for Denver's Hmong notwithstanding.

Adults per household. The number of adults (individuals aged 20 and older) per household is broken down by city and population group in Table V-4. In contrast to total household size, there is little apparent variation here among either cities or groups. Analysis of variance indicates that neither the main effect of city nor population group is statistically significant. The fact that total household size varies by city and group whereas number of adults per household does not indicate that households differ primarily with regard to the number of children and adolescents present.

Table V-4

ADULTS (AGE 20 & OLDER) PER HOUSEHOLD

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	2.23	2.25	2.15	2.19
Denver	2.33	2.67	1.93	2.26
Stockton	2.52	2.34	2.58	2.48
Seattle	2.37	2.04	2.56	2.34
ALL CITIES	2.36	2.29	2.24	2.31

Tenure in domicile. Respondents were asked how long the household had been living in the present house or apartment. The average tenure was 15.3 months (remember, the household had to have lived in the local city at least a year to have been eligible for sampling). Compared to their average lengths of residence in the city (22.2 months) and in the United States (25.7 months), this figure suggests a high rate of mobility among recently arrived Southeast Asians. Table V-5 displays a breakdown of tenure by city and population group. Analysis of variance indicates that only the difference among population groups is significant ($F(2,390) = 8.79$, $p < .001$).

Table V-5

TENURE IN DOMICILE (months)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	17.7	14.2	12.2	14.6
Denver	17.9	15.3	13.7	16.1
Stockton	13.9	13.2	16.1	14.1
Seattle	18.4	11.5	16.2	16.3
ALL CITIES	17.1	13.2	13.9	15.3

Public assistance. Two thirds (67%) of the households were receiving some public assistance (types of assistance were not distinguished) in Spring 1982. The breakdown of public assistance by city and population groups is

Table V-6

PERCENT OF HOUSEHOLDS RECEIVING PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	56	42	98	76
Denver	54	27	23	40
Stockton	100	97	100	99
Seattle	50	77	41	54
ALL CITIES	63	70	70	67

displayed in Table V-6. There are very pronounced differences in public assistance rates among the cities: almost all of the Stockton households received some public assistance. By comparison, only 40% of the households in Denver reported receiving some type of public assistance.

In contrast to these major differences among cities, there are relatively small overall differences among population groups in use of public assistance. Analysis of variance confirms these perceptions: differences among cities are highly reliable ($F(3,390) = 41.20$, $p < .001$), whereas there is no significant difference among ethnic groups ($F(2,390) = 1.02$, $p < .05$).

Individual Characteristics

Characteristics of households were considered above. In this section, characteristics of the 948 individual adult members of those households will be presented. The composition of the sample of these individuals is shown in Table V-7. Their characteristics will be considered chronologically: background characteristics (i.e., factors determined before entering the U.S.) are considered first; next, data related to immigration into the U.S. are described; finally, indicators of resettlement experience in the U.S. are examined.

Table V-7

ADULT SAMPLE COMPOSITION (AGE 20 & OLDER)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	100	27	127	254
Denver	117	38	59	214
Stockton	107	69	49	225
Seattle	131	55	69	255
ALL CITIES	455	189	304	948

Background Characteristics

Age. Dividing the average number of persons aged 20 and older per household (2.31) by the average household size (5.62), the percent of the population 20 years of age and older can be estimated to be 40.1%. Thus,

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the estimated proportion of the population under 20 years of age is 59.9%. For the Hmong, Cambodian and Vietnamese groups, the corresponding estimates are 63.3% 55.6%, and 56.9%, respectively. The substantially higher percentage for the Hmong is consistent with their relatively high fertility rate. Combining these estimates with the individually reported age data for adults 20 and older, the age profile of the three groups is presented in Table V-8.

Table V-8

AGE DISTRIBUTION

By Population Group

	Population Group			
Age	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
under 20	56.9	55.6	63.3	59.9
20-29	19.0	16.7	14.0	16.3
30-39	12.5	14.5	9.8	11.6
40-49	7.4	6.3	5.8	6.5
50-59	2.8	4.5	3.1	3.2
60+	1.4	2.4	4.0	2.5
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
average age of adults (20 and older)	33.9	36.3	36.9	35.4

Although the Hmong population has the largest proportion of persons under 20 years of age, the Vietnamese group has (among individuals aged 20 or older) the largest proportion of persons under 30 and the youngest mean adult age. This may well result from the relatively large number of unaccompanied Vietnamese minors who immigrated to the U.S. and the tendency of Vietnamese to marry late and stay in school longer than the other groups.

Sex. There are slightly more males (53%) in the adult sample than females. A breakdown of the gender distribution by population groups and cities is presented in Table V-9. The percentage of males differs significantly from 50% only among the Vietnamese group, and there is no statistically significant variation in the gender ratio by city.

Table V-9

PERCENT MALES

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	55	42	52	50
Denver	56	55	54	54
Stockton	57	46	51	52
Seattle	62	49	48	55
ALL CITIES	57	48	50	53

Age and gender are cross-tabulated in Table V-10, pooling the three population groups. The relatively even distribution of males and females across all age groups can be seen in the table. There does appear to be a slight trend with age: relatively more females with increasing age. Many other population characteristics are presented below in terms of these age and gender groups.

Table V-10

PERCENT MALES AND FEMALES

by Age

Age	% Males	% Females
20-29	54.8	45.2
30-39	53.3	46.7
40-49	51.8	48.2
50-59	49.3	50.7
60+	48.2	51.8

Education. The mean number of years of education in the native country is broken down by city and population groups in Table V-11. Overall, the amount of years of previous schooling averages 5.1 years. As the table shows, however, education is far from uniformly distributed among the various groups. The Vietnamese are consistently the most educated and the Hmong the least, with Cambodians in the middle. The differences are dramatic. The Vietnamese have an average of nearly eight years of education, whereas the Hmong average only slightly more than one year. Only one quarter (26%) of the

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Table V-11

YEARS OF EDUCATION (NATIVE COUNTRY)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	10.4	6.0	1.3	5.3
Denver	8.1	5.5	2.3	6.0
Stockton	6.2	4.5	1.0	4.5
Seattle	7.2	4.1	0.8	4.8
ALL CITIES	7.9	4.8	1.3	5.1

Hmong had some previous education prior to coming to the U.S., whereas 69% and 91% of the Cambodians and Vietnamese, respectively, had some prior schooling. As we shall see, these differences are critical determinants of the groups' subsequent English acquisition.

Analysis of variance indicates that differences among groups (F(2,849) = 266.7, $p < .001$) and among cities (F(3,849) = 14.63, $p < .001$) are highly significant. The ordering among cities is of considerable interest: in decreasing order of education, Denver, Twin Cities, Seattle and Stockton. This is the same order found above for these cities' employment rates. It is not at all surprising that education and employment status should be correlated for this population (after all, this is a societal pattern throughout the U.S.). What is surprising is that background differences among refugees of a given group--such as their educational status--exist among resettlement cities; for each of the population groups, individuals in Denver and Twin Cities have higher educational status than their peers in Stockton and Seattle. There is a hint in these data that the overall economic environment, more favorable in 1982 in Denver and Twin Cities than in Seattle and Stockton, is influencing the settlement of these refugees. Perhaps the more educated members of a group tend to migrate selectively towards areas where their employment prospects are better, whereas the settlement of less educated segments, whose employment prospects are dim nearly everywhere, is determined by other factors. Further data are needed to clarify such matters.

In addition to differences among population groups and cities, individuals' age and gender are also closely related to their educational attainment. Table V-12 displays years of education for various age and gender segments. At all ages, men have considerably more education than their female peers; overall, men average 6.3 years whereas women average 3.7 years of

Table V-12

YEARS OF EDUCATION (NATIVE COUNTRY)

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	4.4	7.0	5.9
30-39	4.7	7.0	5.9
40-49	3.0	5.1	4.1
50-59	1.1	4.2	2.6
60+	0.4	2.8	1.6
ALL	3.7	6.3	5.1

education. In all groups, boys have had more access to schooling in Southeast Asia than girls had . Although this difference is present in all age segments in the table, it is less pronounced in younger segments, reflecting the historical trend towards increased democratization of schooling in Southeast Asia.

Bilingualism. Since the focus of the study is on English language training and acquisition, individuals' previous experience with other second languages may be of considerable importance. Although linguistic status was reported separately for individual languages in the survey, the data have been collapsed across all languages other than English and the person's native language to form a measure of whether the individual was (at least partially) bilingual before coming to the U.S. (Previous knowledge of English will be considered later.)

Table V-13 indicates that slightly less than half (44%) of the adults speak a second language besides English. The incidence of bilingualism, measured in this manner, varies significantly among the population groups, with the Hmong having the highest rate (62%), the Vietnamese the lowest (32%) and the Cambodians an intermediate rate (44%). Because the second languages spoken by these groups vary (it is principally Lao for the Hmong but French for the Cambodians and Vietnamese), differences among the population groups should be interpreted with caution.

There are also substantial differences in bilingualism among the age and gender segments. Table V-14 breaks down these data by age and gender. At all ages, substantially more men are bilingual than women, no doubt reflecting their more extensive contacts with outside groups in Southeast Asia (in trade, in the workplace, in the military, etc.). The

Table V-13

PERCENT WHO SPEAK A SECOND LANGUAGE (EXCLUDING ENGLISH)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	40	52	68	55
Denver	35	45	80	49
Stockton	14	52	33	30
Seattle	37	29	55	40
ALL CITIES	32	44	62	44

Table V-14

PERCENT WHO SPEAK A SECOND LANGUAGE (EXCLUDING ENGLISH)

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	30	49	40
30-39	33	54	44
40-49	43	52	48
50-59	33	57	45
60+	38	70	54
ALL	34	53	44

gender-related differences in bilingualism seem parallel to those noted above for educational status. On the other hand, the distribution of bilingualism by age is the opposite to that observed for schooling: there is increasing bilingualism in older age segments, both for men and for women.

Literacy. Another individual characteristic included in the survey because of its potential link to English acquisition was literacy, defined in the survey as the ability to read or write a language "at least a little." Literacy was reported individually for each language (other than English). To facilitate comparisons among population groups, a measure was developed which counts literacy in any language other than English, including the native language (the most common form of literacy for the Hmong). As noted with regard to bilingualism, differences among population groups in literacy rates should be interpreted with caution (since they may represent different accomplishments). Table V-15 displays the percent of adults who are literate in some language, broken down by city and population groups. Overall, 58% are literate.

Table V-15

PERCENT LITERATE IN ANY LANGUAGE (EXCLUDING ENGLISH)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	100	70	36	65
Denver	56	74	51	58
Stockton	15	65	35	35
Seattle	96	53	36	71
ALL CITIES	68	64	39	58

As is the case for education and bilingualism, significantly more men (68%) than women (47%) are literate. This difference holds at all ages. There are also pronounced effects of age on literacy rates; for both men and women, literacy decreases sharply with increasing age. The differences here are quite marked; less than one-fourth of individuals aged 60 and older are literate, compared with two-thirds of those in the 20-29 segment. Among men, over three-quarters of the youngest age segment are literate.

Table V-16

PERCENT LITERATE IN SOME LANGUAGE (EXCLUDING ENGLISH)

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	54	76	66
30-39	52	69	61
40-49	46	62	54
50-59	25	69	46
60+	21	26	23
ALL	47	68	58

Summary. A number of interrelated background characteristics have been examined in this section, many of which may affect individual refugees' overall adjustment and acquisition of English: population group, age, gender, education, bilingualism and literacy. Table V-17 summarizes the interrelationships encountered thus far.

Table V-17

SUMMARY OF BACKGROUND DIFFERENCES

Source of Differences	EDUCATION	BILINGUALISM	LITERACY
POPULATION GROUP	Vietnamese have the most education, Hmong the the least	Hmong have the most bilingualism, Vietnamese the least	Vietnamese have the most literacy, Hmong the least
		(Cambodians intermediate)	
AGE	Education decreases with age	Bilingualism increases with age	Literacy decreases with age
SEX	Men have more education	More bilingualism among men	More literacy among men

Education and literacy tend to follow the same pattern, not surprisingly, since educational experience is typically the predominant means to becoming literate. Bilingualism, on the other hand, is distributed in a somewhat different manner, reflecting the multiple types of experience and contacts involved in acquiring second languages. The consistent differences observed between men and women reflect the generally wider range of contacts and access to resources which men enjoyed throughout Southeast Asia, a pattern we shall see has continued to exert itself in refugee camps and during the early stages of resettlement in the U.S.

Migration to the U.S.

The sample of households was purposively restricted to those who had been in the United States 1-3 years at the time of interview; a small percentage of the individuals in the sample falls outside of that time frame since only the household head's (i.e., the person interviewed) eligibility was screened. The vast majority of the sample arrived in the U.S. in the two-year period between July 1979 and June 1981, as shown in Table V-18. The first row of the table is a breakdown of adults' arrivals by six-month intervals. Within the sampling period, the distribution is skewed towards earlier arrivals: 32.4%, 26.7%, 22.3% and 13.4% of the sample arrived in successive six-month blocks. This reflects the progressive decrease in arrivals of Southeast Asian refugees during that time period. Arrivals over time in each of the population groups are exhibited in the three rows below. There are some differences in the arrival patterns of the three groups, corresponding to their immigration patterns during this time period (at least for those who eventually settled in these four cities). Nearly 80% of the Hmong sample arrived between July 1979 and June 1980, whereas less than half of the Vietnamese sample and slightly more than half of the Cambodian sample arrived during the same period. Vietnamese arrivals declined only slightly from the beginning to the end of this period, whereas both Hmong and Cambodian arrivals declined sharply. Thus, the population mix of the arriving sample varied sharply over time, as shown in Table V-19. The table shows that both the earliest and latest arriving individuals in the sample were predominantly Vietnamese, whereas arrivals between July 1979 and June 1980 were predominantly Hmong.

Careful attention will need to be paid to this changing mixture of arrivals as the apparent effects of time in the U.S. are examined below. Previous research (Reder, 1981) has demonstrated how the apparent effects of

Table V-18

ARRIVAL OF ADULT SAMPLE INTO THE U.S.

Time in U.S. at Interview	More than 3 yrs	2-1/2 to 3 yrs	2 to 2-1/2 yrs	1-1/2 to 2 yrs	1 to 2-1/2 yrs	Less than 1 yr
Arrival Date:	Before July '79	July-Dec. 1979	Jan.-June 1980	July-Dec. 1980	Jan.-June 1981	After July '81*
% of Sample	2.8	32.4	26.7	22.3	13.4	2.4
% of Vietnamese	3.6	24.7	23.8	27.4	17.0	3.6
% of Cambodian	2.7	39.9	13.3	23.4	18.6	2.1
% of Hmong	1.7	39.3	39.6	14.1	4.7	0.7

*Under-represented due to sampling design

Table V-19

MIX OF GROUPS IN SAMPLE BY ARRIVAL DATE

Percent of Arrivals Which Was:	Before July '79*	July-Dec. 1979	Jan.-June 1980	July-Dec. 1980	Jan.-June 1981	After July '81*
Vietnamese	61.6	36.2	42.3	58.4	60.5	72.7
Cambodian	19.2	24.9	10.1	21.3	28.2	18.2
Hmong	19.2	38.9	47.6	20.3	11.3	9.1

*Under-represented due to sampling design.

increasing time in the country on linguistic and ecomomic adjustment may confound the true effects of adjustment over time with changes over time in the characteristics of arriving refugees. In a survey of a large Hmong community, for example, Reder found progressive changes in individuals' educational, linguistic and literacy status with increasingly later arrival dates. For a variety of reasons, earlier arriving groups (the first "waves") were better educated, more literate, and more exposed to Western society.

To examine such trends in the present sample, background characteristics are broken down by arrival date in Table V-20. None of the characteristics varies regularly over time, nor is any characteristic substantially correlated with arrival time, as shown in the leftmost column of the table. Education, for example, at first decreases and then later increases with later arrival dates, reflecting the changing mixture of incoming refugees. The literacy rate of new arrivals declines slightly over time, but the overall correlation with time is null. Bilingualism also shows a decline, but only for the most recently arrived groups, and is accordingly only weakly correlated with time. Unlike some previous studies, there is much less time-grading of background characteristics in this sample. This may permit a more direct assessment of the effects of time in the U.S. on resettlement outcomes.

Settling in the United States

Information was collected about several facets of individuals' resettlement experience in the U.S.: the length of their residence in the U.S. as well as in the local city; their present and past employment status

Table V-20

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS BY ARRIVAL DATE

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTIC	Correlation with Arrival Time	Before July '79*	July-Dec. 1979	Jan.-June 1980	July-Dec. 1980	Jan.-June 1981	After July '81*
Years of Education	-.13	5.0	4.8	4.3	6.0	6.0	7.1
Percent Bilingual (excluding English)	.15	35.0	48.0	51.0	47.0	19.0	18.0
Percent Literate (excluding English)	.04	65.0	61.0	60.0	56.0	52.0	36.0

*Under-represented due to sampling design.

(whether they had ever worked in the U.S. and whether they were currently working); ELT training received; and English proficiency (reported for both the first month in the U.S and the time of the interview).

Time in the U.S. The distribution of arrival times was considered above. The same data can be transformed into the length of individuals' residence in the U.S., as displayed in Table V-21 for various population groups and cities. The average length of time in the country was 25.7 months at the time of the survey. Analysis of variance indicates there are statistically reliable differences among population groups (as we have already seen) and cities as well as significant group by city interactions. The sample from

Table V-21

MONTHS IN U.S (AS OF INTERVIEW)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	26.7	28.0	27.7	27.4
Denver	23.9	26.9	29.1	25.9
Stockton	20.8	26.6	27.1	24.0
Seattle	25.8	22.2	26.9	25.3
ALL CITIES	24.3	25.6	27.7	25.7

Twin Cities has been in the country the longest on the average. As a whole, the Vietnamese sample has the shortest average residency in the U.S., reflecting the recent increase in their immigration flows relative to Hmong and Cambodians.

Residence in city. The average length of residence in the local city at the time of interview was 22.2 months, compared with an average of 25.7 months for residence in the U.S. The closeness of these figures suggests that many individuals had lived only in the one city (a question which was not directly asked) rather than having migrated from another U.S. location. The actual percentage of secondary migrants is difficult to assess for this sample, anyway, since families which had recently moved from one city to another would not have been eligible for this study (which required at least one year's residence in the local city).

Employment. The percent of adults employed in various cities and population groups is displayed in Table V-22. These are percentages of individuals who are employed, unlike the figures considered above, which were the percentages of households in which at least one person was employed. Overall, 22% of the adults were working at the time of the interviews. There is significant variation among both cities and population groups in these employment rates, patterned in the same way as the household level data examined above: Denver has the highest rate (45%) and Stockton the lowest (3%), whereas Twin Cities (27%) and Seattle (13%) are intermediate. Among population groups, the Vietnamese and the Cambodians have similar employment rates (25% and 26%, respectively), significantly higher than that of the Hmong group (14%). The substantial differences in refugee employment rates among cities, not surprisingly, reflect differences

Table V-22

PERCENT WORKING

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	41	56	10	27
Denver	41	66	37	45
Stockton	4	4	0	3
Seattle	14	9	13	13
ALL CITIES	25	26	14	22

in local economic conditions. With many refugees being on the margins of local job markets, it is to be expected that differences in refugee employment status among cities will correspond with prevailing differences among their overall unemployment rates. Table V-23 illustrates this correspondence. The four cities are listed in decreasing order of refugee employment (middle column), whereas the third column displays the May 1982 unemployment rates for the cities, which generally increase moving down the table.

In addition to differences among cities and populations, numerous background characteristics and experiential factors are closely related to employment status. We will see below that many factors impact individuals' employment status; for now, the familiar breakdown by age and gender segments will provide a preliminary perspective.

Table V-24 displays these data. Many more men (31%) than women (11%) are working, and the difference is consistent across all age groups. For both men and women, the percent employed is nearly constant up to age 49 but begins falling off after age 50 for women and after age 60 for men.

Table V-23

REFUGEE EMPLOYMENT VS. LOCAL ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

City	% Adults Currently Employed	SMSA Unemployment Rates (D.O.L., May 1982)
Denver	47	5.9
Twin Cities	34	5.7
Seattle	18	10.7
Stockton	14	15.0

Table V-24

PERCENT WORKING

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	11	30	22
30-39	14	35	25
40-49	13	33	23
50-59	6	31	18
60+	0	7	4
ALL	11	31	22

Information about hours worked and earnings for the week preceding the interview was collected for individuals reported to be working at the time of the interview (n = 196). The hours worked ranged from 4 to 64, with a mean of 34.1. About two-thirds (65%) of those working worked 35 or more hours during the preceding week. Their reported earnings for that week averaged $173.29 with a median figure of $152.50.

Information was also collected about individuals' previous work experience in the U.S. Data about past and present employment status are combined in Table V-25, in which the percent of individuals who have ever worked in the U.S. is displayed, broken down by cities and population groups. Overall, 28% of the individuals have ever worked in the U.S., compared with 22% who were

Table V-25

PERCENT WHO HAVE EVER WORKED IN THE U.S.

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmonq	ALL
Twin Cities	51	56	16	34
Denver	44	68	41	47
Stockton	15	13	12	14
Seattle	17	16	22	18
ALL CITIES	31	31	22	28

currently employed; the 6% difference represents those individuals not currently employed who had been employed at some point in the past. Comparing this table with Table V-22, a similar distribution among cities and population groups can be seen.

Table V-26 displays the same data broken down by age and gender segments. These data are distributed in the same pattern as seen above for the current employment status data (Table V-24).

Table V-26

PERCENT WHO HAVE EVER WORKED IN THE U.S.

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	16	40	29
30-39	16	46	32
40-49	16	41	29
50-59	8	37	22
60+	0	15	7
ALL	14	40	28

Finding employment in the U.S. takes time for most people, and refugees prove to be no exception. Table V-27 displays a breakdown of employment status by length of residence in the U.S. Not surprisingly, employment rises steadily with increasing time in the country. Since we saw above that time in the U.S. is not a proxy for ethnic or educational status, these results indicate that refugees' employment prospects have been increasing dramatically

Table V-27

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

by Time in U.S.

	Time in Country (At Interview)					
	Less than 1 yr*	1 to 1-1/2 yrs	1-1/2 to 2 yrs	2 to 2-1/2 yrs	2-1/2 to 3 yrs	More than 3 yrs*
% Employed at Time of Interview	0.0	15.4	19.3	20.6	28.0	28.0
% Who Had Ever Worked in U.S.	4.5	16.9	23.2	28.6	36.5	38.5

*under-represented due to sample design

during their second and third years in the country, despite the major recession taking place in the U.S. during the same period. Of particular significance in this regard is the difference between the 1-1/2 year and 3 year labor force participation rates; nearly twice as many refugees are working by the end of their third year in the U.S. as by the end of their first 18 months. These findings need to be considered in light of the recent cutback of federal cash and medical assistance to refugees from 36 months to 18 months; many more refugees might well become employed given the extra period of time to find work. Notice that these data do not indicate that the 18 month cutback itself stimulated increased labor force participation, as some individuals argued it would at the time of the cutback; these data were collected before any individuals had been affected by the policy change.

English Language Training (ELT)

Individuals have received ELT in a variety of locales and programs; in their native countries (usually in conjunction with formal education), in refugee camps in Southeast Asia, and in the United States (in the city in which they resided at the time of the survey and/or in previous U.S. cities in which they lived). Participation in ELT will be reported here by the mean number of hours of instruction received as well as by the percentage of individuals who have received any instruction whatsoever. The former measure, the average number of instructional hours, is particularly useful since it is additive across different types of programs or locations, whereas the latter measure is not. Nevertheless, both measures are needed, since reporting only the average number of hours does not necessarily convey information about the breadth of service utilization.

Table V-28 displays overall participation in ELT programs. Each row presents ELT received in a particular setting: native country, refugee camp, or the U.S. The bottom row displays total ELT received in all locations. Looking at the first row, we see that adults received an average of 87 hours of ELT in their native country. Relatively few individuals (17%), however, received any ELT at all in their native country. Those that did receive ELT in their native country received a substantial amount (an average of 512 hours). Even less ELT was received in refugee camps. The per capita adult training received in camps was only 19 hours. Only 10% of the adults received any ELT in refugee camps; those who did received an average of 190 hours. In the United States, there has been more intensive participation in ELT. As shown in the third row of the table, 504 hours of ELT have been received per capita in the U.S., with nearly three-quarters

Table V-28

ELT PARTICIPATION

Location of Training	Per Capita Hours of Training	% Received Some Training	Mean Hours for Those Receiving Some Training
Native Country	87	17	512
Refugee Camp	19	10	190
United States	504	74	681
ALL LOCATIONS	610	78	782

(74%) of the adult population receiving at least some ELT; among those who participated at least minimally, the average number of hours received is 681.

The bottom row displays ELT received in all settings. Per capita adult training for this sample is 610 hours. Over three-fourths (78%) of the adults have received some ELT; those that have received some training average 782 hours of ELT. About 22% of the adults have never had any ELT.

Native Country. Let us now look more closely at ELT participation in each of these settings. Participation in ELT in the native country is displayed in Table V-29. Each row shows data for a different population group. Vietnamese individuals received the most ELT in their native country, Hmong the least. Nearly one-third (30%) of the Vietnamese received some training in their native country, and those that did averaged 559 hours; only 10% of the Cambodians, on the other hand, received any ELT, and those that did received less than the Vietnamese (337 hours); hardly any Hmong (3%) received ELT in Laos and those that did received still fewer (200) hours.

Table V-29

ELT IN NATIVE COUNTRY

for Different Population Groups

Population Group	Per Capita Hours of Training	% Received Some Training	Mean Hours for Those Receiving Some Training
Vietnamese	165	30	559
Cambodian	32	10	337
Hmong	6	3	200

Even within a given population group, access to ELT in Southeast Asia was not uniform. Table V-30 breaks the participation data down by age and gender segments. Individuals under 40 received a disproportionate share of the ELT. At all ages, substantially more men than women received ELT in their native countries.

Table V-30

ELT IN NATIVE COUNTRY

for Different Age and Sex Segments

	Per Capita Hours			% Receiving Some Training		
Age	Women	Men	All	Women	Men	All
20-29	45	180	119	14	28	22
30-39	67	134	103	19	24	22
40-49	19	73	47	6	15	11
50-59	35	32	33	3	6	4
60+	0	65	31	0	7	4
ALL	43	132	91	12	22	17

The most common means of accessing ELT in Southeast Asia for this population was through formal schooling: there is a correlation of 0.44 between years of schooling and hours of ELT received in the native country. The link between education and ELT in the native country is perhaps best stated thus: less than 1% of the individuals who never went to school received any ELT, whereas 26% of those who did go to school received at least some ELT in their native country.

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to predict individual participation in ELT in the native countries. Several such analyses were carried out. First, hours of ELT received in the native country, ELTNAT, was regressed on the predictors AGE, SEX, EDUC (years of schooling in the native country), HMONG and CAMBODIAN (the latter two variables are "dummy" variables, coded "1" if an individual is a member of that group, "0" otherwise; a Vietnamese national would be "0" on both variables).

The best predictive equation for ELTNAT uses only two of these independent variables as predictors: EDUC and CAMBODIAN, with CAMBODIAN negatively associated with ELTNAT after the effects of EDUC are controlled. Table V-31 displays the beta-weights of these two significant predictors of ELTNAT. The adjusted r^2 value, .19, indicates that only 19% of the variance in ELTNAT can be accounted for by linear regression on EDUC and CAMBODIAN. The beta values indicate the relative potency of each variable in the predictive equation for ELTNAT. The sign of the beta value indicates whether the variable is negatively or positively linked to the dependent variable. In the ELTNAT equation, EDUC has a relatively strong, positive effect on the amount of ELT received in the native country, whereas being Cambodian has a relatively weak (but statistically significant) negative effect on ELT after the effects of education are held constant.

Table V-31

REGRESSION OF ELTNAT

Adj. $r^2 = .19$

Variables in the Equation		Variables Not in the Equation
Variable	Beta	AGE
EDUC	.421	SEX
CAMBODIAN	-.092	HMONG

That some variables do not enter the regression equation is also informative. Although substantial gender and age-related differences in ELTNAT were observed in Table V-30, AGE and SEX are not predictive of training received once the effects of education are controlled. This indicates that the effects of age and gender on ELT received in the country of origin are indirect, mediated through education; this, of course, is consistent with the previous results concerning the link between ELT and schooling in Southeast Asia.

That CAMBODIAN enters the predictive equation negatively suggests that, holding level of education constant (i.e., EDUC is already in the equation), Cambodians received less ELT than the other groups in their native country. No attempt has been made here to explore such interactions in detail, nor to rescale variables such as EDUC to improve the amount of variance accounted for. The primary aim of the regression analysis is to describe the relative importance of various factors in determining ELT training and (below) the variables predicting acquisition of English and employment in the U.S.

Refugee Camps. The number of hours of ELT received in refugee camps in Southeast Asia is broken down by population groups in Table V-32. Parallel to differences observed among ELT in the native countries, the Vietnamese again received the most training in refugee camps, and the Hmong the least;

Table V-32

ELT IN REFUGEE CAMPS

for Different Population Groups

Population Group	Per Capita Hours of Training	% Received Some Training	Mean Hours for Those Receiving Some Training
Vietnamese	29	12	242
Cambodian	18	12	150
Hmong	5	5	101

Cambodians received an intermediate number of hours of training. Although relatively small numbers of adults received ELT in camps, it must be remembered that camp programs were not fully operational during the time most of these refugees were in camp.

The breakdown of ELT in camps by age and gender segments is shown in Table V-33. Although only about 10% of the adults received any ELT in camps, access to it has been structured in a pattern which is now familiar: younger persons are more likely to have received ELT in camps, and many more men than women received ELT in camps. Among those who had been to school in their native country, 14% received ELT in camps compared to 2.5% of those who had never been to school. Thus the pattern of access to

Table V-33

ELT IN REFGEE CAMPS

for Various Age and Sex Segments

Age	Per Capita Hours			% Receiving Some Training		
	Women	Men	All	Women	Men	All
20-29	5	34	21	4	21	14
30-39	4	18	11	7	10	8
40-49	10	13	11	9	8	8
50-59	0	20	10	0	6	3
60+	0	3	1	0	4	2
ALL	5	23	15	5	14	10

education and ELT in the countries of origin was re-established in refugee camps: those with previous education, younger persons, and males all participated more in ELT in camps.

Multiple regression analyses were carried out to predict ELT received in camps. The dependent variable, ELTCAMP, the number of hours of ELT received in camp, was regressed on the variables AGE, SEX, EDUC, HMONG, CAMBODIAN, ELTNAT (all from the previous regression analysis) as well as ENTRYDATE (month of entry into the U.S.) and ANYLIT (ability to read or write any language). The resulting predictive equation is summarized in Table V-34. The table has the same format as Table V-31.

Notice that individual participation in ELT in camps is even less predictable than that received in the native country (adjusted $r^2 = .09$, compared to .19 in the equation for ELTNAT); only 9% of the variance is predicted here. The most potent predictors are ELTNAT (indicating that

Table V-34

REGRESSION OF ELTCAMP

Adj. r2 = .09

Variables in the Equation		Variables Not in the Equation
Variable	Beta	
ELTNAT	.199	AGE
ENTRYMONTH	-.165	EDUC
SEX	.095	HMONG
		KHMER

those who had received ELT in their native country participated more in camp programs) and ENTRYMONTH (its negative beta value reflects the recency of operation of camp programs). Holding these variables constant, SEX enters (reflecting the increased participation of men). The fact that EDUC does not predict ELTCAMP after the effect of ELTNAT and ENTRYDATE are taken into account indicates that those who had been in the process of learning English were more likely to be served in camps.

United States. Table V-35 shows the breakdown of ELT received in the U.S. by population group. As noted at the beginning of this section, a very large fraction of the adult survey population receives ELT in the U.S. Table V-35 indicates that, unlike ELT in Southeast Asia, the various population groups are equally utilizing ELT in the U.S. Roughly three-quarters of each group is served, and those who are trained reported receiving an average of slightly less than 700 instructional hours.

Table V-35

ELT IN THE U.S.

for Different Population Groups

Population Group	Per Capita Hours of Training	% Received Some Training	Mean Hours for Those Receiving Some Training
Vietnamese	486	72	675
Cambodian	532	76	700
Hmong	512	74	692

Service utilization is fairly uniform among the four cities in the study, as shown in the breakdown by population groups and cities in Table V-36. The table suggests, and analyses of variance confirm, that there are not substantial differences among either cities or population groups in the amount of ELT utilization in the U.S. Within a given city, there do seem to be certain groups (e.g., the Vietnamese in Twin Cities and the Hmong in Denver) with substantially high levels of ELT utilization, whereas other groups seem to be utilizing these services at relatively low levels (e.g., the Vietnamese in Denver).

The percentage of adults who received at least some ELT in the U.S. is broken down by cities and population groups in Table V-37. The same pattern is evident in these data. There is little overall difference among cities or population groups in the degree of ELT utilization in the United States.

Table V-36

HOURS ESL IN U.S.

by City and Population Group

City	Population Group Vietnamese	 Cambodian	 Hmong	 ALL
Twin Cities	737	354	355	492
Denver	266	431	848	466
Stockton	394	782	600	560
Seattle	584	352	451	495
ALL CITIES	486	532	512	504

Table V-37

PERCENT OF ADULTS WHO RECEIVED SOME ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING IN THE U.S.

City	Population Group Vietnamese	 Cambodian	 Hmong	 ALL
Twin Cities	73	67	72	72
Denver	63	79	85	72
Stockton	65	83	71	72
Seattle	86	71	71	78
ALL CITIES	72	76	74	74

Among the age and gender segments, however, utilization is not uniform, as shown in Table V-38. There is little apparent change with age in utilization for individuals up to 50 years of age; for those 50 or older, ELT utilization declines rapidly, particularly after 60. In all age groups, men utilize ELT in the U.S. more than women do (overall, 81% vs. 67%). The difference is particularly striking among the oldest groups.

Table V-38

ELT IN THE U.S.

for Various Age and Sex Segments

	Per Capita Hours			% Receiving Some Training		
Age	Women	Men	All	Women	Men	All
20-29	411	714	573	70	86	79
30-39	496	630	567	78	85	82
40-49	431	672	558	72	84	78
50-59	195	421	303	47	74	61
60+	44	125	83	10	26	18
ALL	390	622	512	67	81	74

There are many factors other than age and gender which might impact ELT utilization in the U.S. Multiple regression analyses presented below evaluate the joint effects of numerous variables on ELT utilization in the U.S. But it may be helpful first to break the data down by some additional variables of particular interest.

Table V-39 breaks ELT utilization down by previous education. The two top rows contrast adults who have had no education versus those with some

Table V-39

ELT UTILIZATION IN THE U.S.

by Educational Status

Years Education Prior to Entry	Per Capita Hours ELT in U.S.	% Receiving Some ELT
None	364	67
Some	579	77
1-3	476	67
4-6	561	75
7-11	659	84
12+	588	79

formal education in their country or origin, while the four bottom rows, inset to the right in the table, further break down "some" education into various amounts of schooling. The major contrasts between "none" and "some" are highly significant: Those with some previous educational experience participate slightly more (77% vs. 67%) and on the average receive substantially more hours of ELT (579 vs. 364). The relative difference in hours is far greater than that in percentage served: considering only those individuals who have taken some ELT in the U.S., those with some previous education received an average of 752 hours, 38% more than those with no previous education (who received an average of 543 hours). This suggests that not only are individuals with previous schooling more likely to participate in ELT, but those that do stay in programs longer. This suggests that programs may be better suited to the needs of educated or literate clientele; this will be further clarified below.

Looking at the bottom line of the table, it can be seen that the more formal education a refugee brings to the U.S., the more he or she tends to utilize ELT. This holds up through the highest category of educational attainment (postsecondary), at which point it begins to dip down (see the bottom row of the table). Evidence presented later suggests that the group with the highest amount of education utilizes slightly less ELT because they need it less: they had more English proficiency at entry and have learned English more quickly after entry. Nevertheless, the main effect of education seems clear enough.

Table V-40 breaks the utilization data down by length of residence in the U.S., grouped by six-month intervals. Analysis of variance confirms what is evident on inspecting the table: although there is no increase in the percentage of adults served over the second and third years of residence in the country, there is a substantial increase in the cumulative hours of training received.

Table V-40

ELT UTILIZATION IN THE U.S.

by Length of Residence

Months in the U.S.	Per Capita Hours ELT in U.S.	% Receiving Some ELT
12-17	329	73.4
18-23	439	74.4
24-29	506	76.6
30-36	677	74.1

There are two possible interpretations of these results. First, almost all individuals who participate in ELT at all have already started their training during their first year in the country, but many continue it throughout the first three years, so that there is a progressive accumulation of per capita hours of training across the three year period. A second explanation consistent with these results is that there has been a change over time in the availability of ELT: Although refugees taking ELT complete their training during the first year or so, there has been a progressive decline in the past two years in the amount of ELT which new arrivals receive in their first year of residence. Changing regulatory limits on the amount of training which individuals can take, among other factors, could be responsible for such trends.

We saw above that nearly three-quarters (24%) of the adults have taken some ELT in the U.S. In contrast, slightly more than one-quarter (27%) was in training at the time of the interview. Table V-41 displays a breakdown of current particpation in ELT by city and population group. Overall, a higher percentage (38%) of Cambodian adults were still in ELT at the time of the survey than the other groups. The most striking differences, however, can be seen among the cities: In Denver, for example, only 9% were in ELT, whereas 57% of the adult refugees in in Stockton were taking ELT at the time of the interviews. An intermediate percentage, 24% of adults in Seattle and Twin Cities, were in ELT at that time. Once again a consistent pattern of inter-city differences emerges: Where relatively large numbers of refugees are currently employed (Denver), relatively few refugees are currently in ELT, whereas where relatively few refugees are working (Stockton), many more are in ELT; intermediate levels of employment status and ELT participation are found in Twin Cities and Seattle.

Table V-41

PERCENT OF ADULTS PRESENTLY IN ESL(5/82)

by City and Ethnic Group

	Ethnic Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	41	22	20	22
Denver	7	10	12	9
Stockton	52	62	59	57
Seattle	21	33	14	22
ALL CITIES	25	38	24	27

To clarify this relationship, crosstabulations of individuals' labor force and ELT participation at the time of the interviews were performed. The percentage of individuals not working who participate in ELT (31%) is twice as large as the percentage (15%) of those working who also participate in ELT. This is not particularly surprising, since those who work have fewer opportunities and less free time for classes.

Other factors may be at work here as well. In many cases, unemployed refugees (believed they) were required to participate in ELT to remain eligible for cash and medical assistance. These regulations (or at least belief that such regulations were operative) could clearly inflate the ELT participation rates for unemployed adults. At the same time, the same individuals who tend to acquire English quickly and hence tend to complete their ELT programs quickly may also be the ones who tend to find work quickly. This could also underlie the observed negative relationship between labor force and ELT participation rates. Clearly further analysis is required to tease apart the mutual relationships among English proficiency, ELT and employment; an attempt to do this is made below. Before that can be done, however, a vital set of data needs to be examined — English proficiency.

English Proficiencies

Data about self-reported English proficiencies are presented in several sections. First, English proficiency levels are reported, both at time of entry into the U.S. and at the time of the interview. Five measures were reported for each of the two time points: an overall rating (on a 5-pt. scale) and four specific English proficiencies, each reported on a yes/no basis. Differences in proficiency between the time points, indicating adults' acquisition of English and coming to the U.S., are examined. Interrelationships among these measures are also considered. In the second section, the various proficiency measures are broken down in terms of individuals' background characteristics (population, group, age, sex, previous education, literacy and bilingualism) and experiences which may impact their acquisition of English (ELT, time spent in the U.S., and employment resettlement location status.) The third section analyses the simultaneous effects of these background and experiential variables on the development of English proficiency.

Development of English Proficiency

Self-ratings of English proficiencies had means of 1.4 the first month in the country and 2.5 at the time of the interview. Recalling that proficiencies are rated on a five point scale (with 1 being the lowest rating), a substantial increase in proficiency has taken place during these adult refugees tenure in the U.S. (which, we recall, was slightly over 2 years on the average at the time of the surveys). The pattern of improvement can be better seen in Table V-42, in which individuals proficiency ratings at entry are crosstabulated against their ratings at the time of the interview. There are 937 individuals represented in the table

Table V-42

IMPROVEMENT IN SELF-RATED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

		Proficiency Rating at Time of Interview					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
Rating	1	211	270	173	35	0	689
for 1st	2	2	14	58	67	7	148
Month in	3	1	0	3	45	9	58
U.S.	4	0	0	1	12	23	36
	5	0	0	0	0	6	6
	TOTAL	214	284	235	159	45	937

Proficiency Ratings ("How Well Do You Speak English"):

1 = Not at all
2 = Just a few words
3 = A little
4 = Fair
5 = Well

(those for whom ratings were reported for both time periods). Each cell in the 5x5 table contains the number of individuals reporting a particular combination of proficiency ratings for the first month and for the time of the interview. For example, the upper left-hand cell contains 211, the number of individuals reporting the lowest proficiency for both time periods. Moving across that top row, we see that a different group of 270 individuals was rated "1" for their first month in the U.S. and "2" at the time of the interview. Another 173 individuals were rated "1" for their first month and "3" for the time of the interview, and so forth. The extreme right column, labeled "TOTAL", contains the sums of each row, the total number of individuals having particular ratings for the first month in the U.S. (regardless of their rating for the time of the interview). Simularly, the marginal frequencies of ratings for the time of the interview is contained in the bottom ("TOTAL") row of the table.

Several points of interest can be drawn from the table. First, the majority of individual adult refugees have improved their English proficiency since coming to the United States. Cells to the right of the main diagonal in the Table (i.e., the diagonal running from "211" at the upper left down to "6" in the lower right corner) contain individuals whose proficiency improved since coming to the U.S.; cells on the diagonal represent individuals whose proficiency remained the same, and those to the left of the diagonal represent individuals whose proficiency rating declined between the first month and the time of the interview. Summing the cells, in these three categories, we get the results show in Table V-43. In round

Table V-43

Individuals' Change in English proficiency

Between Entry and Interview

Change	Number	%
Increase	687	73.3
Same	246	26.3
Decrease	4	0.4

numbers, three-quarters of the adults improved, one-quarter remained at the same level, and no one lost proficiency.

Similar gains can be seen in improving the four specific English proficiencies at the two time points, as shown in Table V-44. Several important results can be seen in this table. First, from 10-20% of the adults possessed the specific proficiencies at entry, depending on the proficiency. Second, the percentage possessing a particular proficiency is well behaved, decreasing regularly as the apparent difficulty level increases from "survival" to "independent job search" levels. Third, there is substantial improvement in these proficiency levels with time in the U.S.; the proportion of individuals possessing any of these proficiencies rises sharply from the first month in the country to the time of the survey.

Table V-44

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES

First Month in U.S. and Present

% Having Specific Proficiencies

Time	"Survival"	"Talk w/ Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"
1st Month in U.S.	19.4	17.7	15.4	10.5
Present	65.2	60.4	55.1	37.6

By the time of the interviews, over half of the adults had the first three proficiency levels and over one-third possessed the most demanding proficiency, the ability to look for work independently.

A few other observations may be in order at this point. It is not surprising that a small percentage of the refugees had these proficiencies at entry; we saw that some had studied English intensively in Southeast Asia. Others no doubt had intensive prior contact with Americans because of military activities during the War.

One additional proficiency measure can be introduced at this point. The systematic decrease in the percentage of individuals having the proficiency as it moves from "survival" to "job search" suggests that there may be an underlying scale (this was the idea, of course, underlying the specific proficiencies chosen for the survey.) For example, if we define the proficiency scale score as the number (0-4) of individual proficiencies an individual is reported to have, then the scalability of these data can be readily determined. The more scalable these proficiencies are, the more accurately one can predict which specific proficiencies an individual has from only his or her scale score. For example, if the data are perfectly scalable awarding to this scheme, then if we know an individual has a score of 2, it follows that the individual must have the lowest two proficiencies and not the higher ones. Another way of looking at perfect scalability is that if an individual possesses some given proficiency, then she/he must also have all proficiencies ranked below it. Departures from these ideal (but seldom realized) patterns, known as Guttman Scales, can be measured quantitatively, yielding coefficients of reproducibility. For these proficiency measures, the coefficients are .96 (1st month in U.S.) and .94 (present time), indicating high degrees of scalability. There is thus good reason to utilize the number of proficiencies an individual is reported to have as an appropriate measure of an underlying English proficiency scale. These scores, ranging from 0-4, will be designated proficiency levels, distinguished from the single overall proficiency ratings (the five-point rating) described earlier.

The mean proficiency levels were 0.63 and 2.18 for the first month in the U.S. and the time of the survey, respectively. This dramatic rise in level of English proficiency is further illustrated in Table V-45, which displays the distribution of proficiency levels at the two points in time. In the first month, for instance, 74% had no proficiencies, and only 7% had all four. By the time of the survey, however, only 26% had zero proficiency, whereas 32% had the maximum of four.

Table V-45

SCALED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

First Month in U.S. and Present

	% at Proficiency Level					
	0	1	2	3	4	TOTAL
1st Month in U.S.	74	9	5	5	7	100%
Present	26	14	9	19	32	100%

Table V-46 summarizes the foregoing indicators of adult refugees' English acquisition. The six measures considered (the overall proficiency rating; the four specific proficiencies, and the scaled proficiency level) are displayed together at each point in time. The bottom rows of the table display the increase in each measure during U.S. resettlement, a t-test value and a statistical significance level for the change over time. Needless to say, all differences are highly significant.

Table V-46

CHANGES IN ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES BETWEEN FIRST MONTH IN U.S. AND PRESENT

		% Having Specific Proficiencies				
Population Group	Overall Rating	"Survival"	"Talk w/ Friends"	"Talk w/ "Strangers"	"Look for Job"	Proficiency Level
1st Month in U.S.	1.42	19.4	17.7	15.4	10.5	0.63
Present	2.51	65.2	60.4	55.1	37.6	2.18
Change	1.09	35.8	42.7	39.7	27.1	1.55
t-value	38.97	25.46	24.84	23.14	17.15	28.21
prob. level	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001

Distribution of English Proficiency

Results in the preceding section indicate gains in adult refugees' English proficiencies since coming to the United States. In this section, the relationships between individuals' English proficiency and their background characteristics and resettlement experiences are examined. Breakdowns of the various proficiency measures in terms of selected key variables are considered. The breakdowns of 1st-month proficiencies are considered first, followed by breakdowns of proficiencies at the time of the survey.

In considering the various breakdowns of a proficiency measure against each of several other variables, several points should be kept in mind. First of all, we have already seen that such variables as population group, age, sex, previous education, ELT participation, etc., are inter-correlated; breakdowns of a measure of English proficiency against each of these variables therefore will not be independent. An apparent relationship between sex and English proficiency, for example, might arise not because of a direct causal link between gender and learning English, but because of both (1) a causal link between previous education and learning English and (2) a tendency for men to have received more education before coming to the U.S. Clearly, to interpret the mutual effects of numerous variables on English acquisition, techniques must be applied which account for the interrelationships among all variables. Such analyses have been carried out and are described in a section below; for that reason, statistical tests are not applied to the individual breakdowns presented here.

English proficiencies the first month in the U.S. Table V-47 displays a breakdown of the six proficiency measures by population group. The same relationships prevail among measures for each group. There is also a consistent pattern among the three groups for each measure: Vietnamese have the highest proficiency, Cambodians an intermediate proficiency, and Hmong the lowest proficiency. As mentioned above, other background differences among the groups may be at work here (for example, we saw that the groups are ordered in the same way with respect to previous education, literacy, and amount of ELT received prior to U.S. entry).

Table V-47

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES: FIRST MONTH IN U.S.

by Population Group

Population Group	Mean Proficiency Rating	% Having Specific Proficiencies				Mean Proficiency Level
		"Survival"	"Talk w/Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"	
Vietnamese	1.68	26.5	26.1	24.0	18.7	1.0
Cambodian	1.33	20.3	18.3	13.4	6.0	0.6
Hmong	1.10	8.0	4.7	3.7	1.0	0.2

The six first-month proficiency measures are broken down by age and sex segments in Table V-48. The same general patterns appear for each measure: (1) among these adults, men have more English proficiency than women at all ages; (2) there is a sharp decline in proficiency after age 50; some measures exhibit age-grading throughout the adult age range (i.e., decrease regularly as age increases from 20), whereas other measures do not vary appreciably with age over the 20-49 age range. Until the effects of other age-related variables (e.g., previous education, literacy) are taken into account, more extensive analysis of age-related phenomena will not be undertaken.

Table V-48

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES: FIRST MONTH IN U.S.

by Age and Sex Segments

	Proficiency Rating			Proficiency Level		
Age	Women	Men	All	Women	Men	All
20-29	1.3	1.7	1.5	0.5	1.0	0.7
30-39	1.3	1.6	1.5	0.4	0.9	0.7
40-49	1.2	1.6	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.6
50-59	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.2	0.3	0.2
60+	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.0	0.3	0.2
ALL	1.3	1.6	1.4	0.4	0.8	0.6

% Having Specific Proficiencies

	"Survival"			"Talk to Friends"			"Talk to Strangers"			"Look for Job"		
Age	W	M	ALL	W	M	ALL	W	M	ALL	W	M	ALL
20-29	15	29	23	15	30	24	12	24	19	7	12	10
30-39	13	26	20	10	25	18	10	23	17	10	17	14
40-49	16	29	23	9	19	14	12	14	13	11	12	12
50-59	8	12	10	6	6	6	3	9	6	3	3	3
60+	3	7	5	0	11	5	0	7	4	0	4	2
ALL	13	25	20	11	24	18	10	20	15	8	13	10

The first-month English proficiency measures are broken down by several other key variables in Table V-49: previous education, ELT prior to U.S. entry, and prior bilingualism and literacy. Clear patterns are evident with respect to each of these variables.

All measures of first-month English proficiency increase regularly with increasing prior education. The effects are very dramatic indeed. The mean proficiency level (rightmost column) at U.S. entry is an order of magnitude larger among high school graduates than among those with no previous schooling. The same holds for the four individual proficiencies. Indeed, the first-month proficiencies of the segment having 12 or more years of previous schooling are nearly as high as the proficiencies of the entire population at the time of the survey, an average of 2 years after entry! (Compare the "12+" row of Table V-49 with Table V-57). Perhaps this is one way of gauging the advantage that previous education brings to the task of learning English.

Previous education, we recall, is associated with ELT participation prior to U.S. entry. Previous ELT, both in the country of origin as well as in refugee camps, is also related to entering English proficiency, as shown in the next two breakdowns of Table V-49. The contrast in each breakdown is between "None" and "Some," i.e., those having no ELT versus those having at least some ELT. (The exact hours of ELT are utilized in the more qualitative analyses presented below.) Strong effects of ELT, both in the native countries and in the camps, are suggested by all measures in these breakdowns. The effects of ELT received in the native country appear to be somewhat stronger than those of ELT in camps; it must be remembered, however,

Table V-49

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES: FIRST MONTH IN U.S.

by Selected Population Characteristics

Population Characteristic	Mean Proficiency Rating	% Having Specific Proficiencies "Survival"	"Talk w/Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"	Mean Proficiency Level
Previous Education						
None	1.03	6.9	3.8	1.6	0.9	0.13
1-3 yrs	1.12	15.6	8.3	7.3	3.7	0.35
4-6 yrs	1.15	13.1	8.5	10.3	3.5	0.34
7-11 yrs	1.61	25.5	24.8	17.8	15.3	0.83
12+ yrs	2.46	46.2	52.6	49.1	35.5	1.84
ELT in Native Country						
None	1.19	13.6	10.3	8.5	5.7	0.38
Some	2.56	47.5	53.8	48.8	34.0	1.84
ELT in Camps						
None	1.39	17.9	16.0	13.8	9.9	0.57
Some	1.73	32.6	32.6	29.5	15.8	1.11
Speak a Second Language (excluding English)						
No	1.32	16.8	14.2	11.4	9.0	0.51
Yes	1.55	22.8	22.3	20.6	12.5	0.78
Literate in Some Language (excluding English)						
No	1.21	10.0	10.0	10.5	7.0	0.38
Yes	1.58	26.4	23.4	19.0	13.1	0.82

that those who had some ELT in the native countries typically received many more hours of training (an average of 512) than those who received some ELT in the camps (an average of 190). Multivariate analyses presented below will take the actual number of hours into account.

Breakdowns of the first-month English proficiencies by individuals' linguistic status also exhibit some clear patterns, as shown in the final two breakdowns of Table V-49. Individuals bilingual in some language (not counting English), as well as individuals literate in some language (other than English) tended to be somewhat more proficient in English at U.S. entry than their monolingual or nonliterate peers. Again, the relative strength of these apparent effects cannot be gauged until the effects of other variables with which they are also correlated (e.g., education) are taken into account.

English proficiencies at the time of the survey. Breakdowns of current English proficiencies reported at the time of the interviews are presented in the following pages as Tables V-50 through V-55. Each table breaks down a different proficiency measure in two ways: (1) by city and population group, and (2) by age and sex segments.

The first two tables exhibit breakdowns of the most general measures of English proficiency: Table V-50 displays the proficiency rating results and Table V-51 the proficiency level data. The same trends are apparent in the breakdowns of both measures. There are major differences among the population groups: the Vietnamese have the highest English proficiency, the Cambodians an intermediate amount, and the Hmong the lowest English proficiency. There are also some apparent differences among the cities; refugees in Denver appear to have the highest proficiency, those in Stockton the lowest. We have seen

Table V-50

ENGLISH PROFICIENCY RATING (1-5)
TIME OF SURVEY

by City and Population Group

City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
	Population Group			
Twin Cities	3.1	2.7	1.7	2.4
Denver	2.9	2.9	2.3	2.8
Stockton	2.6	2.4	1.5	2.3
Seattle	3.1	2.4	1.8	2.6
ALL CITIES	2.9	2.6	1.8	2.5

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	2.4	3.2	2.8
30-39	2.3	2.9	2.6
40-49	1.9	2.5	2.2
50-59	1.6	2.0	1.8
60+	1.2	1.6	1.4
ALL	2.1	2.8	2.5

many other differences among the populations in these cities, however, so direct comparisons at this point are better interpreted later when the effects of potentially confounding variables are controlled.

There are clear cut trends with respect to age and sex. In all age segments, men have more English proficiency than women do. For both men and

Table V-51

ENGLISH PROFICIENCY RATING (0-4)
(TIME OF SURVEY)

by City and Population Group

City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
	Population Group			
Twin Cities	3.2	3.4	1.1	2.2
Denver	2.6	2.8	2.2	2.5
Stockton	1.5	1.8	0.8	1.5
Seattle	3.3	2.4	1.3	2.5
ALL CITIES	2.7	2.4	1.3	2.2

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	2.0	3.1	2.6
30-39	1.9	2.7	2.3
40-49	1.4	2.2	1.8
50-59	0.8	1.8	1.3
60+	0.3	0.8	0.5
ALL	1.7	2.6	2.2

women, there is a systematic decrease in English proficiency with increasing age. In contrast with the age breakdowns of the corresponding first-month proficiencies, in which proficiencies were fairly constant through age 50 (and dropped off quickly thereafter), the age-grading here is quite smooth across the lifespan. Tables V-52 through V-55 exhibit the same breakdowns for each of the four specific English proficiencies. The data appear reasonably well behaved and sharp patterns are evident among these individual proficiencies. In general, the same trends appear across all four proficiencies: (1) the percentage of the population groups having a given proficiency are generally ordered in decreasing fashion: the Vietnamese have the highest percentage, the Hmong the lowest and the Cambodians are in between (the only exception is for the "survival" proficiency, which a slightly higher percentage of Cambodians than Vietnamese were reported to have); (2) there are substantial differences among cities (even for a given population group), with Seattle and Denver being higher than Twin Cities and Stockton; (3) in all age segments, a higher percentage of males than females has a given proficiency; and (4) for both men and women, there is a progressive decrease in the percentage of individuals having a given proficiency as age increases across the lifespan.

To facilitate inspecting trends across the various proficiency measures, Table V-56 displays data for all six proficiency measures broken down separately by city, by population group, by age and by sex. Data in this table is drawn directly from the corresponding figures of Tables V-50 through V-55.

Table V-52

PERCENT HAVING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY 1: "SURVIVAL" (TIME OF SURVEY)

by City and Population Group

City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
	Population Group			
Twin Cities	97	93	51	70
Denver	65	76	73	69
Stockton	41	64	33	46
Seattle	78	83	64	75
ALL CITIES	68	76	55	65

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	62	85	74
30-39	61	76	69
40-49	52	76	65
50-59	28	67	46
60+	18	26	22
ALL	54	76	66

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Table V-53

PERCENT HAVING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY 2: "CONVERSE WITH FRIENDS" (TIME OF SURVEY)

by City and Population Group

	Population Group			
City	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	All
Twin Cities	86	85	30	58
Denver	72	84	61	71
Stockton	42	55	20	41
Seattle	86	73	43	72
ALL CITIES	72	70	37	60

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	60	87	74
30-39	51	73	63
40-49	35	61	49
50-59	28	50	39
60+	3	26	14
ALL	46	72	60

Table V-54

PERCENT HAVING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY 3: "CONVERSE WITH STRANGERS" (TIME OF SURVEY)

by City and Population Group

City	Population Group Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	86	85	23	54
Denver	64	70	54	63
Stockton	44	46	20	40
Seattle	86	64	22	64
ALL CITIES	70	62	29	55

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	50	83	68
30-39	44	70	58
40-49	30	53	42
50-59	17	53	34
60+	3	18	11
ALL	39	68	55

Table V-55

PERCENT HAVING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY 4: "INDEPENDENT JOB SEARCH" (TIME OF SURVEY)

by City and Population Group

City	Population Group Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	ALL
Twin Cities	60	78	6	35
Denver	56	49	30	48
Stockton	29	19	10	22
Seattle	78	20	4	46
ALL CITIES	57	34	11	38

by Age and Sex Segments

Age	Women	Men	ALL
20-29	30	58	45
30-39	31	48	40
40-49	23	34	29
50-59	6	18	11
60+	4	11	7
ALL	25	46	36

Table V-56

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES: TIME OF SURVEY

by Population Group, City, Age and Sex

Population Characteristic	Mean Proficiency Rating	% Having Specific Proficiencies				Mean Proficiency Level
		"Survival"	"Talk w/Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"	
Population Group						
Vietnamese	2.9	68	72	70	57	2.7
Cambodian	2.6	76	70	62	34	2.4
Hmong	1.8	55	37	29	11	1.3
City						
Twin Cities	2.4	70	58	54	35	2.2
Denver	2.8	69	71	63	48	2.5
Stockton	2.3	46	41	40	22	1.5
Seattle	2.6	75	72	64	46	2.5
Age						
20-29	2.8	74	74	68	45	2.6
30-39	2.6	69	63	58	40	2.3
40-49	2.2	65	49	42	29	1.8
50-59	1.8	46	39	34	11	1.3
60+	1.4	22	14	11	7	0.5
Sex						
Women	2.1	54	46	39	25	1.7
Men	2.8	76	72	68	46	2.6

Table V-57 breaks down these English proficiency measures by other variables of interest: previous education, bilingualism, literacy, amount of ELT taken in the U. S., present partiicpation in ELT and present employment status. Let's consider each of these breakdowns in turn.

Table V-57

ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES
(TIME OF SURVEY)

by Selected Population Characteristics

Population Characteristic	Mean Proficiency Rating	% Having Specific Proficiencies "Survival"	"Talk w/Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"	Mean Proficiency Level
Previous Education						
None	1.61	44.3	29.5	20.7	6.3	1.01
1-3 yrs	2.24	58.3	55.0	47.7	23.9	1.84
4-6 yrs	2.46	70.9	65.5	59.4	35.7	2.28
7-11 yrs	3.15	82.6	87.8	84.6	69.2	3.24
12+ yrs	3.78	87.6	90.6	91.9	77.3	3.48
Speak a Second Language (excluding English)						
No	2.38	57.4	55.6	49.8	35.3	1.98
Yes	2.68	75.2	66.5	61.9	40.5	2.43
Literate in Some Language (excluding English						
No	1.94	44.0	34.3	28.6	15.8	1.21
Yes	2.92	81.1	79.9	75.0	53.7	2.90

(continued on next page)

Table V-57 (continued)

			Mean	% Having Specific		
Proficiencies Population Characteristic	Mean Proficiency Rating	"Survival"	"Talk w/Friends"	"Talk w/ Strangers"	"Look for Job"	Proficiency Level
Months in the U.S.						
12*	2.55	40.0	35.0	40.0	45.0	1.60
12-17	2.53	59.0	54.5	43.9	24.6	1.82
18-23	2.61	65.7	63.3	59.5	44.6	2.30
24-29	2.29	67.5	60.7	52.2	34.1	2.16
30-36	2.57	69.3	62.8	59.7	39.0	2.30
37+*	2.67	66.7	70.8	66.7	50.0	2.54
Hours of ELT in the U.S.						
None	2.14	43.2	41.6	38.0	27.1	1.49
1-499	2.44	68.0	56.5	51.2	35.3	2.11
500-999	2.69	80.6	73.7	64.0	43.2	2.61
1000-1499	2.71	79.4	75.0	68.7	46.3	2.67
1500-1999	2.96	78.3	79.2	79.2	54.2	2.91
2000+	3.36	75.9	83.3	83.3	54.8	3.10
Currently in ELT?						
No	2.42	63.8	59.8	53.9	38.1	2.15
Yes	2.74	68.9	62.0	58.4	36.4	2.25
Currently Employed?						
No	2.33	60.5	53.2	47.7	29.0	1.90
Yes	3.13	82.7	86.9	82.7	69.3	3.22

*Under-represented due to sampling design

English proficiency is sharply graded with respect to previous education (years of schooling in the country of origin). All six measures of English proficiency exhibit this dramatic grading. The higher the proficiency level, the more impact previous education seems to have. One way of illustrating this phenomenon is to compare the percentage of individuals having a specific proficiency among the highest and lowest categories of previous educational attainment. For example, 88% of individuals having 12 or more years of schooling are reported to have at least a "survival" level of English proficiency, compared to only 44% of those with no previous education (a 2 to 1 ratio). For progressively more difficult proficiencies, the corresponding figures are 91% vs. 30% (3 to 1); 92% vs. 21% (4 to 1); and 77% vs. 6% (12 to 1).

The next breakdown shown in Table V-57 compares individuals who do and do not speak a second language (besides English). A relatively small but consistent difference is exhibited: Individuals who were already bilingual before coming to the U.S. are at higher English proficiency levels than their monolingual counterparts. In these data, the apparent effects of bilingualism seem to diminish (unlike the effects of education) as the proficiency level increases.

The apparent effects of literacy on English proficiency, shown in the next breakdown of the table, are much stronger than those of bilingualism. Furthermore, like the effects of education (and unlike those of bilingualism), the effects of literacy intensify as the English proficiency level rises.

On the second page of Table V-57, some additional breakdowns are presented. Unlike those shown on the first page, these breakdowns are with respect to experiences individuals have after coming to the U.S. The first breakdown displays the various English proficiency measures as a function of the time individuals have resided in the U.S. Although overall increasing trends are present, they are neither very strong nor particularly consistent. Time in itself (at least over the 1-3 year span covered by this survey) does not appear to [illegible]cal factor in adult refugees' development of English proficiency. Perhaps the determinants are particular experiences which engage individuals with the English language, such as ELT, work experience, friendships with English speakers, etc.; none of these experiences necessarily takes place merely because of the passage of time.

Some hint of this possibility is given by the remaining breakdowns of Table V-57. English proficiency increases regularly with hours of ELT individuals have taken in the U.S. Detailed examination of these breakdowns is quite informative. The most general measures of English proficiency, the proficiency rating (leftmost column) and proficiency level (rightmost column), increase over the entire range of ELT hours (even up to 2000 hours). Three of the four individual proficiency measures also behave in this manner: The percentage of individuals having a given proficiency increases regularly as the number of ELT hours increases. The lowest or "survival" level of English proficiency, however, behaves somewhat differently. The percentage of individuals having this "survival" level of English increases with ELT hours only through about 1000 hours, after which it stays constant or even decreases slightly. This pattern is quite noteworthy, because it suggests that there is a group of individuals who never acquire even the lowest proficiency levls despite very large amounts of ELT. According to these data, about 25% of the adult refugees who have had 2000 or more hours of English instruction are still below even a "survival" level of proficiency. This is not necessarily surprising: A significant proportion of older first generation immigrants throughout U.S. history (not just Southeast Asian refugees!) have probably not acquired this minimal level of English proficiency. Furthermore, these results are consistent with comments from some students and teachers that some people keep coming to classes but never really learn any English.

Relationships between English proficiency and current ELT participation and current employment status are shown in the final two breakdowns of the table. There is a small but consistently positive relation between current participation in ELT and English proficiency. There is a much stronger positive relation between current labor force particpation and English proficiency. Neither of these relationships can be interpreted in causal terms in a straightforward way. The fact that English proficiency and employments are positively related, for example, does not indicate that one necessarily causes the other. Similarly, the relatively weak relationship between current participation in ELT and English participation does not necessarily indicate a relatively small effect of ELT participation on learning English. We know from Phase I that many students leave ELT programs because they have already reached their learning objectives, so that students still in programs, everything else being equal, could well be at lower levels of English proficiency than many program leavers. Once again, multivariate analyses, in which many of these potential effects can be simultaneously assessed, will be used to identify the causal relationships underlying adult development of English proficiency. Having examined some of the basic patterns in the survey data, we now turn to those analyses.

Predicting the acquisition of English. A long history of events take place which shape the eventual resettlement experience of individual refugees in the United States and their acquisition of English. In addition to their age, sex ands cultural backgronds, numerous formative experiences in their native countries, in refugee camps and in resettlement sites in the U.S. may have a significant impact on their acquisition of the English language.

In a similar way, a long chain of multivariate statistical analyses is needed to examine these multiple influences underlying the refugees' acquisition of English. Multiple linear regression techniques are used to calculate the simultaneous effects of multiple vasriables on some independent variables, such as hours jof ELT taken or English proficiency level. These techniques enable the analyst, in looking at a large set of inter-correlated variables such as thoese survey data, to simplify the description of the data set and to explore how well the data "fit" a particular model of causal influences among the variables of interest.

There are, of course, many, many analyses which might be conducted and numerous models which can be compared with respect to the data. Numerous analyses have been carried out and a wide variety of models have been tested against the data. Those models which appear to offer the most adequate descsription of the data will be the ones presented here.

Two interrelateds techniques are used to present summaries of these analyses. The first is the classical path analysis of Sewall and Wright, which uses the least squares estimation methods of multiple linear regression to estimate the path weights or strengths of causal links presumed among various variables in the model. The goodness of fit of a prticular path analytic model is measured as the percentage of variance in the dependent variable (e.g., English poroficiency) which is accounted for by the independent or predictor variables (e.g., age, sex, education, hours of ELT, etc.). These path analytic models have been used to predict the two most general measures of English proficiency, the proficiency rating and the proficiency level.

A distinct but closely relateds type of technique will be used to predict the acquisition of the four specific English proficiencies. For these measures, the technique of discriminant analysis is used to predict which individuals (are reported to) have a particular proficiency, e.g., able to speak English with strangers. The advantage of using discriminant analyses for these two-valued (yes/no) proficiency measures is that is quantifies the predictability of individuals' English proficiencies in easily understandable terms: the percentage of individuals correctly classified as having or not having the given proficiency. The discriminant analyses, using the same least squares estimation procedures underlying multiple regression analysis, compute a predictive equation as a linear function of the predictor variables, similar to the regression equations considered above. This equation can be applied to each individual by plugging in the individual's values on the predictive variables (e.g., age, years of education,...). Discriminant analyses establish cutoff values, such that if the value computed for a particular individual exceeds the cutoff, the individual is predicted to have the proficiency in question. Similarly, if the computed value is below an established cutoff, the individual is predicted not to have that proficiency. The predictability of the English proficiency measure can thus be stated as the percentage of individuals who are correctly classified by the given equation.

To facilitate these analyses, a "weak causal ordering" was assumed among the variables according to the chronology of resettlement: A variable whose value is always fixed before or simultaneously with the value of another varible is assumed to be "causally prior" to that variable. Potential causal links or paths from variable A to B are permitted only if A is causally prior to B. Thus, because an individual's age, sex and ethnicity are determined at birth, the corresponding survey variables are causally prior to all other variables. If the survey data warrant such a link, for example, individuals' gender may be causally linked to their education, but not vice-versa; we are willing to allow, if the data support it, gender to determine (in part) years of schooling received in Southeast Asia, but we would not permit educational attainment (a later event) to detemine gender (a prior event).

Table V-58 shows the weak causal ordering assumeds for the purposes of these analyses

Table V-58

VARIABLES USED IN THE MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES

AGE	ELTNAT	LIT	ENG1	ELTUS	ENG2
SEX	L2	ELTCAMP		WORK	
EDUC		TIMUS		TWIN CITIES	
HMONG				DENVER	
CAMBODIAN				STOCKTON	
Native Country		Refugee Camps		United States	

There are six sets of variables in this weak causal orderings. Any variable to the left of a given variable is assumed to be causally prior to it, and can be used as a predictor of it in the analyses which follow.

In the analyses which follow, these variables have the following meanings. AGE is specified in years, SEX is defined at 1 if male and 0 if female. Population group, which has three values, is coded by the two dummy variables, HMONG and KHMER (each of which is coded "1" or "0"). The Vietnamese are not omitted from the analyses; they are designated when both HMONG and KHMER are coded "0". Years of schooling in the natiave country is EDUC, and ELTNAT codes hours jof ELT received in the native country. L2 and LIT are coded "1" if the individual is bilingual or literate in some language, respectively, other than English.

ELTCAMP represents the number of hours of ELT received in refugee camps. TIMEUS is the number of months of U.S. residence at the time of the survey (or by adding a constant, the time of entry into the U.S.). ELTUS is the number of ELT hours taken in the U.S. WORK is coded "1" if the individual was participating in the labor force at the time of the survey. ENG1 and ENG2 are the English proficiencies reported for the first month in the U.S. and at the time of the survey, respectively.

We will now proceed chronologically (and causally) through these variables, moving left to right, identifying the relative strengths (or path weights) of potential causal influences among the variables. The end-goal is to identify the variables impacting the development of ENG2, the individual's English proficiency after resettling in the U.S. Particular attention will be paid to identifying the impact of ELT on English language development.

Stage 1: Predicting previous education. Regressions performed using EDUC as a dependent variable examined the effects of the causally prior variables, AGE, SEX, HMONG and KHMER. Results are summarized in Table V-59.

Table V-59

REGRESSION OF PREVIOUS EDUCATION

$R^2 = .43$

Variable	Beta	F	sig.
HMONG	-.601	475.8	.0001
CAMBODIAN	-.243	78.1	.001
SEX	.210	67.7	.001
AGE	-.189	54.8	.001

All four variables enter the regression operation with a high degree of statistical significance. The magnitude of the Beta weights indicate the relative potency of the effects the variables have on EDUC when all are considered together. The sign of the weight indicates whether the variable has a positive or negative effect on the dependent variable, EDUC. Increasing AGE has the smallest absolute effect on EDUC among these variables, and since its Beta is negative, it has a negative effect: Everything else equal, being older (i.e., being born earlier) tends to result in less education, presumably since there was less access to education in Southeast Asia the farther back in time one goes.

SEX has a slightly stronger effect on EDUC than AGE does; since SEX was coded "1" for males and "0" for females, this indicates greater (access to) EDUC for males, everything else equal. Recalling how the dummy variables for population group, HMONG and CAMBODIAN, were coded, the fact that their Beta values are negative indicates that these groups have significantly less EDUC than the Vietnamese; the fact that the HMONG Beta (-.601) is more negative than the CAMBODIAN Beta indicates that the Hmong have still less education than the Cambodians. The fact that these Betas are larger in magnitude than those for AGE and SEX indicates that the effects of population group on EDUC are larger than the effects of these other variables (although all are significant).

There's not much new in these particular results, since we gleaned pretty much the same picture from the crosstabulations of EDUC by these variables above in Tables V-11 and V-12.

Stage 2: Predicting ELT and bilinqualsim in the native countries. Two parallel sets of regression analyses were conducted on the same causally prior variables: AGE, SEX, HMONG, CAMBODIAN, and EDUC. Regression results for ELTNAT were presented above (see Table V-31). Results for L2 (speak a second language, excluding English) are presented in Table V-60. All causally prior variables are statistically significant predictors of L2, although as a group they predict only 18% of the variance. Apparently, strong factors other than those measured determine individual bilingualism. As we saw in earlier breakdowns, bilingualism is socially distributed in a different way from education. It increases with AGE, and is highest among the Hmong and lowest among the Cambodians.

Table V-60

REGRESSION OF L2

$R^2 = .180$

Variable	Beta	F	sig.
HMONG	.494	142.9	.0001
EDUC	.319	61.2	.0001
CAMBODIAN	.193	31.2	.0001
SEX	.153	22.8	.0001
AGE	.111	12.2	.001

Stage 3: Predicting ELT taken in camps, literacy (in a language other than English) and time of U.S. entry. Similar regression analyses were conducted for each of these variables. (Readers interested in summary tables should

contact the authors directly.) The variable LIT, incidentally, was placed in Stage 3 rather than in Stage 2 because many individuals (particularly Hmong) actually acquired literacy during their stay in the camps.

Stage 4: Predicting English proficiency, first month in the U.S. Regression analyses were conducted separately for each of the two most general measures of first-month proficiency, proficiency rating and proficiency level. Table V-61 displays the results of these multiple regression analyses. Two separate equations are presented in the table; regression equation 1, at the top of the table, predicts the first-month proficiency rating, whereas equation 2 predicts the proficiency level.

Relatively large amounts of variance are accounted for by these equations: 52% and 32% of the variance in the proficiency rating and level, respectively. Each regression equation is summarized in the same way. Variables which are significant predictors of the particular proficiency measure are listed on the left-hand side, together with their standardized regression coefficients (or "Beta" weights) and the F and p values indexing the statistical significance of their contribution to the predictive equation. On the right hand side of the table, variables are listed which were found not to be significant predictors of the proficiency measure (when effects of variables in the equation are controlled), together with corresponding F and p values for the significance test which rejected the variable's entry into the equation. For example, in Equation 1, we see that EDUC is the most potent predictor of proficiency ratings, having the largest Beta value (.474). The F test of the statistical significance of EDUC in this equation yields an F value of 329.6; the corresponding p-value of .0001 indicates that the likelihood of such a large F value being observed by chance alone is less than 1 in 10,000. AGE, on the other hand, is not a significant predictor of the first-month English proficiency rating, once the effects of the variables of the equation are controlled. The F value of AGE, were it to be added to the existing equation, is 0.45, which has a p 0.50 chance of being observed due to chance factors alone.

Although the two equations were derived independently, they exhibit the same structure. The same four predictors enter each equation; and with the same relative potency. In decreasing order of strength: (1) EDUC—years of previous schooling; (2) ELTNAT—hours of ELT received in the native country; (3) L2—bilingualism (in a language other than English); and (4) ELTCAMP—hours of ELT received in refugee camps. With the effects of

Table V-61

PREDICTION OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES: FIRST MONTH IN U.S. MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

Equation 1: Dep. Var = Proficiency Rating
adj. $r^2 = .515$

Variables in the Regression

	Beta	F	p
EDUC	.474	329.6	.0001
ELTNAT	.343	166.9	.0001
L2	.116	23.9	.001
ELTCAMP	.054	5.0	.026

Variables Tested But Not in the Regression

	F to enter	p
AGE	0.45	.50
SEX	0.28	.60
HMONG	1.37	.24
KHMER	0.43	.84
LIT	2.94	.09

Equation 2: Dep. Var. = Proficiency Level
adj. r^2 = .318

Variables in the Regression

	Beta	F	p
EDUC	.378	147.6	.0001
ELTNAT	.246	60.6	.0001
L2	.103	13.3	.001
ELTCAMP	.082	8.1	.005

Variables Tested But Not in the Regression

	F to enter	p
AGE	0.37	.55
SEX	0.35	.98
HMONG	3.16	.08
KHMER	0.60	.44
LIT	0.43	.51

these variables statistically controlled, none of the other variables in the model (AGE, SEX, LIT, HMONG or CAMBODIAN) is significantly related to refugees' English proficiencies the first month of U.S. residence.

These results are readily interpretable. It is hardly surprising that the amount of ELT received prior to entry predicts English proficiency right after entry. Even though we learned that population group, age and sex impact pre-entry ELT (particularly in the native country), once the effects of ELT are taken into account, there are no residual effects of these variables on the entering English proficiencies. The effects of education, on the other hand, are patterned quite differently. Like the population group, age and sex variables, education directly impacted individuals' access to ELT in their native countries. But, unlike these variables, the effects of education and bilingualism persist, even after the effects of ELT are controlled.

Stages 5 and 6: Predicting ELT utilization in the U.S. and English proficiency at the time of the survey. At this point, additional assumptions must be made about relationships among ELT, employment status and English proficiency to make further headway. We saw above in Table V-57 that there is a positive relationship between hours of ELT taken in the U.S. and English proficiency. If it is assumed that ELT is causally prior to English proficiency, then the impact of ELT on English proficiency can be directly assessed. It is conceivable that English proficiency itself directly impacts participation in ELT, but such a relationship, if it exists, is not likely to be a simple linear one: Individuals at both extremes of proficiency might be less inclined to participate. Such effects cannot be evaluated in this data set. So it will be assumed here that the ELT taken up to the time of the survey is causally prior to English proficiency at that time.

A similar assumption regarding the relationship between work status and English proficiency is also problematic. There is good reason to suppose that English proficiency may impact employment status (that assumption, after all, is a major rationale for funding refugee ELT programs). It is also plausible that employment, through the contacts with English speakers offered in many jobs, impacts English proficiencies.

With these caveats, we will nevertheless proceed to gauge the relative impact of ELT and employment on English proficiency. To do this, WORK will also be assumed to be causally prior to English proficiency. Additional analyses (in which WORK is excluded) indicate that the structure of the resulting model is not radically altered by this assumption. No assumption is made regarding a casual relationship between ELT and WORK, however.

Table V-62 exhibits the results of regressing hours of ELT in the U.S. on the set of causally prior variables. Relatively few potential predictors have a significant effect on ELTUS, and overall only 14% of the variance is accounted for. The most significant predictor is TIMEUS, the length of residence in the U.S. AGE and LIT are also substantial predictors of ELT taken here, indicating that older and nonliterate individuals are utilizing ELT less than their younger or literate peers. Similary, men utilize ELT more than women, even after the effects of these other variables are statistically controlled. The appearance of STOCKTON here seems to reflect the lack of time limits on refugee ELT participation prevailing in California in contrast to the other cities in the survey (but this is a relatively weak effect).

Table V-62

REGRESSION OF ELT (U.S.)

$r^2 = .143$

Variable	Beta	F	sig.
TIMEUS	.202	32.7	.0001
AGE	-.183	26.7	.0001
LIT	.180	21.0	.0001
SEX	.140	16.2	.0001
STOCKTON	.097	7.1	.008

It is of considerable interest that literacy predicts utilization but that education does not. This is consistent with, and serves to corroborate, the findings from the classroom observations (Chapter III) that classroom activities are highly oriented towards literacy, as well as teachers' views (Chapter IV) of nonliteracy as a barrier to the teaching and learning of English.

Table V-63 summarizes the regression analyses for WORK, using the proficiency level data for ENG1 (first-month proficiency). About 25% of the variance is predicted. The most important factor seems to be the city, not surprisingly, since there are such gross differences among the cities' employment rates. After those differences are controlled, SEX (being male), EDUC, and CAMBODIAN impact individuals' labor force participation. TIMEUS also exerts a positive effect on WORK; everything else equal, the longer a refugee is in the U.S., the more likely he or she is to be employed (even going against the widening recession in progress during the time frame of this study, as noted earlier).

Table V-64 displays the regression of English proficiency (again using the scaled proficiency level measure) on all the causally prior variables considered in previous states. Numerous variables enter the equation, which together predict about 58% of the variance, a substantial amount for a survey such as this.

Table V-63

REGRESSION OF WORK

$R^2 = .264$

Variable	Beta	F	sig.
DENVER	.324	81.7	.0001
SEX	.200	41.7	.0001
TWIN CITIES	.169	20.9	.0001
EDUC	.140	14.7	.0001
CAMBODIAN	.105	11.8	.0001
TIMEUS	.088	8.3	.004
STOCKTON	.078	4.5	.034
ENG1	.123	11.8	.001

Table V-64

REGRESSION OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

$R^2 = .581$

Variable	Beta	F	sig.
EDUC	.312	73.2	.0001
AGE	-.219	69.1	.0001
STOCKTON	-.217	48.5	.0001
LIT	.144	22.7	.0001
HMONG	-.156	22.5	.0001
TIMEUS	.110	18.2	.0001
ELTUS	.109	17.5	.0001
WORK	.111	15.6	.0001
TWIN CITIES	-.103	10.4	.001
SEX	.085	10.1	.002
DENVER	-.092	8.7	.003
ENG1	.067	5.6	.018
L2	.064	5.5	.019

EDUC remains the most potent predictor. Other background characteristics which are strong determiners are AGE and LIT. Even with the effects of EDUC controlled, literacy per se remains a powerful determiner of English language development. HMONG is a negative predictor of English acquisition, even with the effects of EDUC and LIT controlled. Although statistically significant, SEX and L2 are much weaker as predictors of English proficiency.

Several variables reflecting resettlement activities all have about the same potency as determiners of English proficiency: TIMEUS, ELTUS and WORK all contribute positively towards the acquisition of English. Even after all of these variables are statistically controlled, the resettlement context (i.e., the city) appears to exert an influence on English language development. The three dummy variables which code for city all enter negatively (with Stockton by far the most negative), indicating that the non-dummy-variable city, Seattle, appears relatively conducive to English acquisition when these many other variables are statistically controlled. Finally, it's worth remarking that an individual's entering proficiency, ENG1, has a relatively small effect on later proficiency, quite a bit weaker than the effects of most other variables.

Discriminant analyses. As mentioned earlier, discriminant analyses offer another means for examining individuals' acquisition of English. For each of the four specific language proficiencies on which survey data were collected, two discriminant analyses were performed. The first attempts to identify which individuals mastered the proficiency by the first month in the U.S. The second discriminant analysis attempts to identify which individuals, among those who had *not* mastered the proficiency by the first month in the U.S., mastered it by the time of the survey.

Table V-65 displays the results of discriminant analyses conducted for each of the four specific English proficiencies (for the first month in the U.S.). The same predictors considered in the foregoing regression analyses were considered in these analyses. Each analysis is summarized in a column of the table. The standardized regression coefficients (Beta weights) of the predictors in the discriminant equation for a given proficiency are the numbers listed in the column for that proficiency measure. If no Beta weight is entered for a particular predictor in an equation, that indicates that the variable is not a statistically significant discriminator of the given proficiency. For example, the discriminent equation for "survival" level English proficiency during the first month in the U.S. involves just four variables: EDUC, LIT, ELTNAT and ELTCAMP. As in the regressions, the larger the magnitude of the Beta value, the more potent the variable is as a predictor.

The number of individual cases in each analysis and the percentage of cases correctly classified (as having or not having the particular proficiency during the first month in the U.S.) are listed in the bottom two rows of the table. Using only 4-5 predictor variables, between 73-82% of the cases are correctly classified by these discriminant analyses, depending on the proficiency being predicted.

Table V-65

PREDICTION OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVELS
(FIRST MONTH IN U.S.)

BY DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

Predictors	English Proficiency Predicted			
	"Survival"	"Talk with Friends"	"Talk with Strangers"	"Look for Job"
EDUC	.536	.700	.789	.792
L2		.193	.278	.202
LIT	.270		-.205	-.211
ELTNAT	.469	.463	.430	.461
ELTCAMP	.271	.176	.134	
% Cases Correctly Predicted	73.1	80.0	81.8	81.0
% Cases in Analysis	942	942	942	944

Not surprisingly, these results are similar to the corresponding regression analyses. Previous education is the most potent predictor of all four of the first-month proficiencies, as it was for the overall proficiency measures. English language training received in the native countries (ELTNAT) is consistently the second most potent predictor.

After these two strongest predictors, the picture varies somewhat depending on the particular proficiency being predicted. Both literacy and ELT received in refugee camps predict the "survival" proficiency, not surprisingly, since basic literacy skills are needed for many survival tasks and since refugee camp ELT programs explicitly taught many "survival" type English proficiencies. As the proficiency level being predicted increases from "survival" to "look for job," the potency of ELTCAMP as a predictor decreases regularly (and disappears altogether at the highest level), reflecting the limited focus and duration of the camp programs (at least those which this group went through). Previous bilingualism ("L2") is a positive predictor of all but the lowest ("survival") first-month proficiency. LIT is less straightfoward as as predictor. It starts off as a positive predictor of "survival" proficiency, drops out of the equation for "talk (English) with friends," and predicts the highest proficiencies negatively. EDUC, at the same time, is regularly increasing in potency across these proficiencies. Since EDUC and LIT are closely tied, there is likely some interaction taking place between the two in these equations (remember, education has been one of the key paths to literacy).

The corresponding discriminant analyses of the four proficiencies at the 3ime of the survey are summarized in Table V-66. These analyses, we recall, are applied only to those individuals who did not have the given proficiency the first month in the U.S. The discriminant equations are therefore predicting which individuals actually learned each given proficiency in the U.S.

In general, the discrimination of learning is quite strong (77-83% correct identifications). The same overall structure of predictors is seen here as in the path analytic models. EDUC, AGE, LIT and SEX are consistent predictors of learning English. Indicators of resettlement activities (TIMEUS, ELTUS and WORK) are predictors of English acquisition of about equal potency. The Hmong seem to acquire the higher levels more slowly than other groups; Cambodians seem to pick up the lower levels more quickly than other groups.

Table V-66

PREDICTION OF LEARNING SPECIFIC ENGLISH PROFICIENCIES

by Discriminant Analysis

Predictors	English Proficiency Predicted			
	"Survival"	"Talk with Friends"	"Talk with Strangers"	"Look for Job"
EDUC	.406	.503	.455	.570
AGE	-.466	-.437	-.379	-.185
HMONG			-.312	-.321
LIT	.177	.269	.230	.187
STOCKTON	-.432	-.357	-.208	-.342
TWIN CITIES		-.212		-.271
DENVER	-.198		-.126	-.228
SEX	.219	.206	.270	
TIMEUS		.186	.268	.208
ELTUS		.148	.191	.148
WORK		.173	.204	.390
L2	.227			
CAMBODIAN	.318	.267		-.178
% cases in analysis	627	623	643	688
% of cases correctly predicted	77.0	79.9	81.7	83.2

APPENDICES

APPENDIX III-A

PROCEDURES FOR CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Procedures for Use of the Classroom Observation Instrument

Whenever possible, observers entered a classroom at the beginning of a class period or after a break. The observer sat close to the front of the room, facing the students, positioned in a place which would be unobstrusive yet still provide a good view of as many students as possible. During the observation period, observers did not talk with the class, and were only introduced if the individual teacher wished.

Using the observation forms (see copy at end of Appendix), observers first noted the time, date, teacher and program, then noted on the cover sheet any unusual environmental factors such as extreme temperatures, very crowded classrooms, external noise, etc. Next, a seating chart was filled out on the third page of the form (Class Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech--CSES), noting the sex and apaproximate age of each student. Form the numbers on the seating chart, five students were chosen using a random numbers list; these seat numbers were then marked on Page 4 (Student Behavior Observation).

Observers then turned on a timing tape, which they listened to through earphones, that timed each section of observation. Seven minutes were spent on the first classroom observation checklist, noting some context variables as occurring: "none", "some", or "a lot", "a lot" being defined as over one half the observation time and other frequencies as "none" or "some", ranking the emphasis on different items. Three minutes were taken to complete the coding of the checklist.

Class Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech

After the General Classroom Observation Sheet was coded, observers proceeded to page 3 of the instrument, Class Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech (CSES):

Step 1. The seating chart had been filled in with sex and approximate age of student when observer first entered the room.

Step 2. For a five-minute period, the coder simply checked a box for each occurrence of spontaneous or elaborated speech observed in the appropriate square for each student.

Spontaneous Speech was defined as a student-generated speech act in which students said something in English on their own initiative without being specifically directed to. Elaborated Speech was defined as a speech act in Engish which was a longer utterance than directed response called for, or a complex or lengthy spontaneous speech act. In the data analysis discussed in Chapter III, what is termed Spontaneous Average and Elaborated Average are taken from these counts.

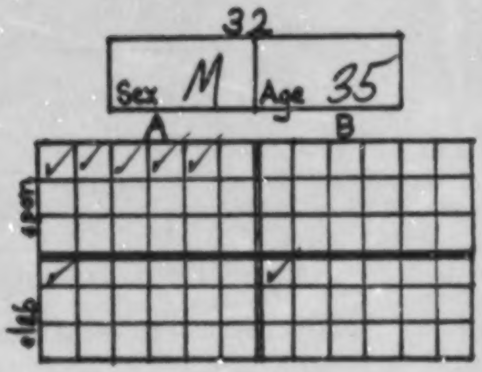
Step 3. After the five-minute interval was coded, 30 seconds was taken to code the context for the first five minutes, "sweep interval A." Coders circled one choice for each item, choosing the category most emphasized during the five-minute period. Only if there was equal emphasis were two choices circled. Working definitions were the same as for the General Classroom Observation Checklist.

If a clear transition, interruption or break occurred during the five-minute period, the times were recorded.

Step 4. This procedure was repeated (Steps 2-3) for "sweep interval B." Display 1 below is a sample of the CSES "box" for one student in the seating chart--this student was seated in seat 32; he was a 35-year-old male. During sweep A, five spontaneous speech acts were observed for him, and one elaborated speech act. See the form in this Appendix for an example of the entire seating chart and classroom context form. During sweep B, the student did not speak spontaneously at all, but had one elaborated speech act.

Display 1

Sample CSES Grid for One Student



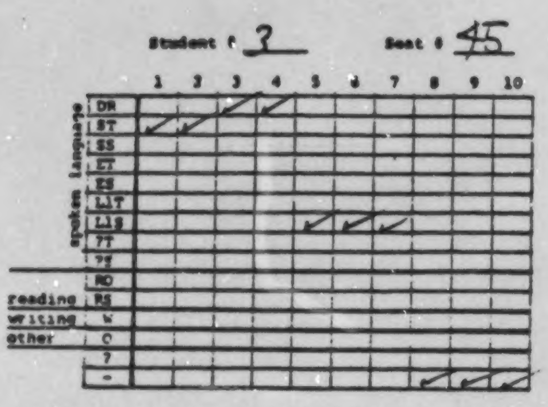
Student Behavior Observation

Step 1. (Five students had been randomly chosen for observation when the observer first entered the class.)

Step 2. Using the signals on the timing tape, observers checked the box next to the behavior first observed in the six-second interval. Only one check was made per interval. Display 2 below is a sample of an observation grid for one student; the entire student behavior observation is found on the copy of the observation instrument at the end of the Appendices.

Display 2

Sample Behavior Observation Grid



Student # 3 Seat # 45

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR			✓	✓						
	ST	✓	✓								
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S					✓	✓	✓			
	?T										
	?S										
	RO										
reading	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-								✓	✓	✓

Display 2 shows student #3, in seat #45 of the seating chart. In this sample, the observer saw the student speaking English spontaneously to the teacher (ST) for intervals 1 and 2, then speaking English as part of a directed response (DR) for intervals 3 and 4. During the intervals 5, 6 and 7, the student was speaking his native language to another student (LS), and during intervals 8, 9 and 10 he was "off-task," tending to a child in the classroom.

After the observer coded 10 six-second intervals for the first student, Student #2 was observed and coded, then Student #3, until all five students had been observed for 10 six-second intervals.

Step 3. Observers then coded the teaching context for the previous five minutes, as on the Classroom Spontaneous and Elaborated Speech form.

Step 4. Steps 1-3 were repeated, observing the same students again and coding the context.

General Classroom Observation Checklist

The last part of the classroom observations was a repeat of the General Classroom Observation.

Working Definitions

General Classroom Observation Checklist. The following is a list of working definitions, by item number, which observers used for the General Classroom Observation Checklist. These definitions were used only for coding this observation form, and for convenience are also used in the discussion in Chapter III of this report. The working definitions and terms are not the only or necessarily accepted way of defining the behaviors observed, but were agreed upon by all observers to assure consistent and reliable data gathering procedures.

1. Language Used by the Teacher:

   English and another was coded if any part of the lesson, but not all, was conducted in a language other than English during the observation period.

2. To What Extent was Instruction Addressed to Students as:

a whole group:	all students together receiving same instruction
in small groups:	students divided into groups within class
individually at seat:	students work alone at desk, teacher or aide helps them individually

3. To What Extent Did Teacher Present English:

in written form	teacher used writing or written materials for instruction
orally	teacher (or tape or video) spoke language orally
nonverbally	hand gesters or body movement
other	miscellaneous

4. To What Extent Did the Teacher Use Teacher Materials:

board writing	teacher writes on blackboard
books	books, pamphlets
worksheets	individual sheets for each student, either teacher made or book copies
literacy props	alphabet charts, word cards, or flash cards, Silent Way charts
drawings/photos	prepared or impromptu drawings, photos
film/video	movies, filmstrips, TV
tape	recorded speech
tangible objects	real objects such as food, clothing, car parts, etc.

5. To What Extent Were Students Using at Their Desks at Teachers Direction (students had to have been using materials at direction of teacher as part of lesson:

written materials	books, worksheets
tangible objects	as above
other	

6. To What Extent Did the Teacher Direct Student Activity Towards (category was coded if students were doing activity as part of lesson instruction):

board work/displays	students write on board, or demonstrate something on displays such as word charts
seatwork	work at desk alone, usually silent reading or worksheets
testing/assessment	quizzes, tests, exams or other assessment, either written or oral
recitation	activities in which students are answering questions, drilling or repeating at direction of teacher. Responses are explicit.
discussion	open or guided discussion on any topic
listening/comprehension	students listen to lecture, tape or take dictation, but do not speak

role playing--teacher/student	students act out a part or situation, teacher takes one role
role playing--student/student	as above, but students take both or all roles
other teacher directed student/student interaction	any other activity in which students interact with each other such as asking each other questions, helping each other with seatwork, etc.
other	any miscellaneous other activities in class. Included silent reading (oral reading is "recitation"), physical response exercises, etc.

7. To What Extent Were the Following Explicitly Taught (description of the lesson focus):

learning to read	explicit literacy instruction or reading or writing lesson, as opposed to using written materials for other purposes
grammatical patterns	lessons in traditional grammar, or pattern practice, structural drills, etc.
vocabulary	focus on meaning and pronunciation, individual words or word lists, oral or written
pronunciation	focus on pronunciation of words or sounds, intonation or stress
conversation	focus on speaking English in context, either learned dialogs or class discussion
other	included lectures in native language, instruction in survival skills, some vocational skills such as sewing, etc.

8. To What Extent Did Lesson Content Emphasize (the topic, if any, of lesson:

medical orientation	body parts, illness, appointments, etc.
housing	rent, landlord problems, description of house, etc.
money/numeracy/time	American money, learning numbers, written or orally, learning to read or say time
transportation	take the bus, cars, etc.

shopping	prices, comparison shopping, groceries, clothing, etc.
employment orientation	English for getting or keeping a job
other cultural orientation/survival skills	survival skills and cultural information not included in any category above, such as crime prevention, schooling for children, legal orientation, etc.
ESL for specific jobs	English for a specific job or vocation, such as welding, assembly, cooking, sewing, etc.
L_1 content	teacher spoke in native language, content could not be determined by observers
Other	miscellaneous "other" was usually coded when lesson was "English" language lesson such as grammar or general reading, but no specific survival skill content

9. To What Extent Did the Teacher Use the Following Targeting Methods (ways teacher selected students for response):

unison	all students respond together
unstructured	students speak without being individually called on
directed	teacher chose students for response by asking questions directly, calling names, etc.
voluntary	teacher asks for volunteers
individual at seat	attention given to individuals at their seats—the teacher goes around to help
other	any other, such as students directing next speaker, etc.

10. To What Extent Did the Teacher Require a:

written response	students write
spoken response	students speak
physical response	students follow direction, manipulate objectives, etc.

"None" would be coded for all categories if no response was required.

11. To What Extent What Corrective Feedback Style--Teacher Correction Approaches. "None would be coded if teacher did not correct students at any time, or have other students correct:

immediate teacher correction	teacher gives student correct language form or response immediately after error is made
teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	teacher asks another student for correct response
teacher recues student	teacher corrects by giving student partial answer, or asking the question again. Student corrects self.
other student correction	students in class correct each other
other	any other type of correction, such as explanation, translation in native language, explanation of rules, etc.

12. How Many Students are Using English that is (code amount and "level of English. No talk at all would be coded "none" on all the categories):

mechanical	students repeat or do structured pattern drills
meaningful	students answer questions on more complex drills, but there is only one correct answer
communicative	students are using English in response to open ended questions, discussion, or to communicate amongst themselves

13. How was Teacher/Student Generation of Speech Balanced*:

mostly teacher	teacher does most talking
mostly student	students do most talking
about the same	

*Note: This item was not included in the final analysis, since initial analyses showed that ambiguity of the item gave unclear results

14. To What Extent Did Teacher Use:

formal English	a speech register generally reserved for formal lecture or writing
colloquial English	everyday "consultative" speech style
pidgin English	simplified English or mixed English of another language

15. To What Extent Did Students Introduce New Materials?

Count number of times questions or new materials introduced.

16. To What Extent Did Teacher Incorporate New Materials and/or Questions?

If #15 above were 1 or more, count number of times teacher responded or adjusted based on student questions.

17. How many aides were present?

Count bilingual and English speaking aides in class for any length of time.

18. To What Extent Did Aide Activity Emphasize:

teaching	aide actually teaches part or all of class
individual tutoring	aide helps students individually
interpret	aide translates from or into native language
taking students out of class	aide comes in, take students out for administrative or other purposes

19. How Many Changes in Lesson Content Occurred?

Count change of topic, activity or focus.

20. How Many Interruptions Occurred?

Count interruptions in which instruction stops.

21. How Many Minutes of Seven-Minute Period Were Spent on Instructional Activities?

Approximate number of minutes.

Student behaviors. The following is a list of working conditions used for coding student behaviors.

DR	Directed Response. Student is speaking English in response to specific teacher direction, for example, unison repetition or responding to a question.
ST	Spontaneous to Teacher. Student is speaking English spontaneously to teacher; student has not been targeted specifically by teacher and is just "speaking up" whether in or out of turn. Speech is directed to the teacher.
SS	Student is speaking English spontaneously to another student.
ET	Elaborated to Teacher. Student is speaking English to teacher in an "elaborate" response, either a lengthy or complex speech act, especially if more than teacher specifically called for.
ES	Student is speaking English in lengthy or complex way to another student.
L_1T	First Language to Teacher. Student is speaking native language to teacher.
L_2S	First Language to Student. Student is speaking native language to another student.
?T	Unknown to Teacher. Student is speaking to teacher, but observer cannot tell what language is being used.
?S	Unknown to Student. Student is speaking to another student, but observer cannot tell which language.
RO	Reading Orally. Student is reading orally.
RS	Reading Silently. Student is reading silently.
W	Writing. Student is writing, whether at teacher's direction or not.
O	Other On-Task Behavior. Student is on-task, but not behaving in any of above ways. Listening, following directions, and generally paying attention are considered other on-task behaviors.
?	Can't Tell. Observer cannot tell whether student is on or off-task.
"—"	Off Task. Student is off-task, not following lesson, not speaking English or writing. Examples of off-task behavior are daydreaming, leaving the room, socializing, attending to children.

Limitations of Observation and Changes in Procedure

Occasionally, a class ended early, or interruptions occurred which prevented the observer from completing the entire four pages of the observation sheet. In these cases, the observer sometimes chose to eliminate one sweep of student behavior observations, or eliminated the second classroom checklist. These cases were very infrequent and any part of the observation instrument which had to be left out was coded as "missing data" for analysis. All changes in procedure were noted in the cover sheet for the class.

For very large classes, observers also noticed they could not accurately code every instance or spontaneous speech when an animated discussion was taking place, or when many students were calling out answers at once. An analysis was therefore run comparing the spontaneous speech section by class sizes, and it was found that large class size did not significantly affect the reliability of data collection.

Observer Effect

Teachers had been asked to conduct their classes as they normally would if observers had not been there. In some very small classrooms, of course, it was not possible to be inconspicuous, and in others, unaccustomed to visitors, the observer's presence was more noticeable. All of the observers noted that, in general, the effect of an observer presence on the classroom behavior diminished after a few minutes. A large proportion of students and teachers interviewed said they perceived little or no change in the normal classroom activities due to the observer's presence.

Field Testing and Training

The classroom observation instrument was field tested in ESL classrooms of various type levels in the Portland area. To assure feasibility and generalizability of the forms, two observers tested the instrument in each class making appropriate revisions to the intrument after each field test. All observers used the instrument in its present form in at least two test classes before they used them in the field. To further assure reliability, each observer had a detailed list of definitions for each item coded.

APPENDIX III-B

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION DATA ANALYSIS

I. THE MAJOR DATASETS

A. "Leveler" Information (LEVEL)

B. General Classroom Observation Checklist (CLIST)

C. Class Spontaneous and Elaborated English Speech (SPONT)

D. Student Behavior Observation (BEHAV)

E. Student Interview (STUDINT)

F. Teacher Interview (TCHPRINT)

II. LEVEL

A. The Data

1. What: Each student was asked a question in English and the quality of the response was recorded. The questions varied in difficulty and were asked in a random order.

2. Why: The ability of the students to answer these questions serves as an index of their English language skills. This index enables the proficiency levels of the classes and programs to be compared without relying soley on human judgment.

3. When: This data was taken once in each classroom that was visited.

B. How Was the Data Recorded and Analyzed?

1. What was recorded? Responses by each student to the question were classified into the following categories:

   a. other person answered (L1)
   b. no response (L2)
   c. inappropriate response (L3)
   d. appropriate non-standard response (L4)
   e. appropriate response (L5)
   f. appropriate elaborated response (L6)

2. How was the data summarized? The number of responses in each category was recorded for each class. The variable name assigned to each category is listed above. When another person answered the question (L1), the response was not considered appropriate and was not used. Thus, the total number of valid responses from a class was the sum of L2, L3, L4, L5 and L6.

   Several composite variables were created to summarize the results.

   a. Appropriate average (APAVE) was the percentage of the total responses which were appropriate.

      APAVE = (L4 + L5 + L6)/(L2 + L3 + L4 + L5 + L6).

   b. Another variable, APAVEL, was the percentage of response which were of appropriate standard quality or better.

      APAVEL = (L5 + L6)/(L2 + L3 + L4 + L5 + L6).

   c. Finally, the appropriate elaborated responses were called ELAVE.

      ELAVE = L6/(L2 + L3 + L4 + L5 + L6).

   The three "leveler" variables each measured a class overall ability to understand and respond to questions asked in English. They varied only in the type of responses which were deemed acceptable.

3. Which variables were chosen from the "leveler" data for use in later analyses? Two criteria were used for choosing the variable to be used. The first was "what is most reasonable?" and second, "does it discriminate between apparent class labels?" Elaborated speech did not occur very often in many classes and ELAVE did not discriminate well between low and mid-level classes. APAVE and APAVEL were highly correlated with one other, and did seem to separate the classes well. APAVEL was chosen as the variable.

III. GENERAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST (CLIST)

To describe the process of learning, it is necessary to identify the setting in which it occurs. The General Classroom Observation Checklist (CLIST) was designed to document some of the most important features of classroom instruction. At the beginning and end of each observation period, our observers took seven minutes to fill out the checklist. A copy of the checklist is contained in this Appendix.

How was the data recorded and analyzed?

There were four different kinds of items on the checklist. The first (Items 1, 13, 15 & 16) required the selection of one of several categories. The second (items 2, 5, 7, 8, 12 & 18) required the observer to estimate the amount of an activity that occurred in the classroom. The third (items 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11 &14) required the ranking of classroom activities by their frequency of occurence. The fourth type of item (items 17, 19, 20 & 21) required a number to be filled in, such as the number of aides present in the classroom. Each type of item has different scaling properties, that is, it conveys information in different ways. As they were originally recorded, separate analyses would have to be done for each type of question.

How the data were to be handled was further complicated by the number of observations in each classroom. Each class was to be observed three times, and during each observation, the checklist was filled out twice. Thus, for most classes there were six ratings for each checklist question. Because of the number of ratings and the different kinds of questions involved, analyzing the checklist data would be quite complicated.

To simplify data analyses, several changes were made. Items which required rankings to be made were recorded into the "None, Some A Lot" categories used in other items. If an activity or teacher behavior was rated as being most frequent (a ranking of 1), it was recorded as "A Lot". All other rankings were regarded as "Some", and those not ranked were treated as "None". In Items 15 and 16, a similar approach was taken. The categories of rsponse in these items (None, 3 times or less, More than 3 times) were taken to represent ("None, Some, and A Lot"). Responses of "A Lot" were coded as "3", "Some" were coded "2", and "None" became "1". These values were then averaged across observations and days for use with other sources of information. Although this method of aggregation is unorthodox, a comparison of the original data with the recorded aggregated means convinced the researchers that the information conveyed by each were essentially equivalent.

The checklist data was combined with other data sets in two ways. For comparison with classroom data, the checklist data was combined across observation periods within each day (SWEEP) and across the three days of observation. For comparison with data from the daily observations, the checklist information was handled so that no aggregation was necessary.

IV. CLASS SPONTANEOUS AND ELABORATED ENGLISH SPEECH (SPONT)

To record the amount of speech that was generated by each student, two 5-minute observations were made. For each student, sex, age and the number of spontaneous or elaborated English responses were recorded by the observer. A brief description of the classroom context was also made for each observation period. This information was used to determine which types of classroom procedures encouraged student speech. This was also the course of most of the data concerning the age and sex of the students.

How was the data analyzed?

For each observation period, the number of spontaneous and elaborated responses were counted for the entire class, and the average response rate per student was calculated. The observation periods showed no significant differences between them, so they were combined and averaged.

Like the other large data sets, SPONT was aggregated in two ways. To combine it with classroom data, information was averaged across the three days of observation. No further aggregation was needed to combine SPONT with other data from the daily classroom observations.

V. STUDENT BEHAVIOR OBSERVATION (BEHAV)

To describe more precisely what the students were doing in a classroom, observers selected five students to observe for two 5-minute periods. The behaviors of the five students were classified into one of 15 categories. Each student was rated 10 times with each five-minute session. Descriptions of the classroom context were also recorded for each observation period.

How was the data analyzed?

The number of times each student was classified into each category was recorded and averaged across the five students for each observation period. There were no major differences between the two observations. Thus, the average over both sessions were used in subsequent analyses. Some of the categories of behavior were combined into larger units for analysis. These included all of the student-generated English speech categories, the original language speech categories, the reading categories and those categories considered to be "on-task". A variable referred to as "percentage of time on-task" was also created which compared identifiable "on-task" activities with "off-task" activities.

BEHAV data was combined directly with other daily classroom observation data. After averaging across observation days, the data set was combined with other classroom data.

VI. STUDENT DISCUSSIONS (STUDENT)

To gather information on students backgrounds and attitudes, discussions were held with several students in each class. The students selected for this part of the study were selected randomly by the observer. The observer followed guidelines on student selection to help ensure that a representative sample was obtained.

How was this data analyzed?

After initial analyses were performed on the overall group, class averages were obtained on the most important questions. On questions which had respondents choose one of several categories, the percentage of the class which selected each response was calculated. The class averages were then combined with other classroom data.

VII TEACHER DISCUSSIONS (TCHRINT)

Discussions were held with all teachers whose classes were observed. The questions inquired about such things as experience, current teaching conditions and attitudes toward the program.

How was the data analyzed?

After the initial analyses for the entire group of teachers, class averages were obtained for classes with more than one teacher. As was done with the student discussions, questions with several categories were recorded as the percentage of teachers in the class which selected each option. The class averages were then combined with other classroom data.

Appendix III-C

"Leveler" Questions

Where are you from?
What's your address?
What's your date of birth?
What do you do when you are sick?
What time do you go home from school?
Where do you live?
What do people call you?
What languages do you speak?
Are you married or single?
What's your phone number?
How long have you been living in the United States?
How long have you been studying English?
How do you get to school?
What do you do for a living?
When did you come to ___________ (name of this city)?
What kind of transportation do you take to school?
How many people live in your house?
What's your native country?
How old are you?
How old were you when you left your country?
When did you arrive in the U.S.?
What's your name?
When do you come to school?
How many children do you have?

APPENDIX III-D

DATA ANALYSIS--TEACHER STYLE

The two groups of teachers were compared by teaching behaviors (from the classroom checklist) and by the student behaviors they elicited (from the student behavior checklist, and the spontaneous and elaborated speech observations). Within the groups of teachers who teach two classes, each teacher is observed twice. In the comparison group, each teacher is represented only once. The frequency of each variable to be examined is not of primary importance in this analysis. What is more interesting is the variance of each variable. The variance of an observation may be considered to consist of two parts: (1) the part due to the differences between the different teachers, and (2) the part due to changes by the same teacher from time to time. It is expected that between teachers, variance is about the same for the two groups of teachers. If there is a difference between the groups, it is expected to result from the greater consistency (less variance) of teachers compared with themselves. To measure the difference in the variances of the two groups, an F-test was performed. A F-test is a simple ratio of the variances of the two groups which takes into account how many observations were made. Listed in the following table are the significant results from these comparisons.

There were almost 100 comparisons made between these two groups at the .05 level of significance for both mean and variance differences. There were only three statistically significant differences found between the groups can be claimed. In contrast, 16 statistically significant differences in variances were observed. As expected, the group of duplicate teachers showed smaller variances than the comparison group. In only three cases was the trend reversed--just about what would be expected by chance.

Table III-D-1

DATA ANALYSIS--TEACHER STYLE

	Duplicates		Comparison				
	Mn	SD	Mn	SD	T*	F*	Which is Greater?
Teacher Variables							
Boardwriting	2.3	0.53	1.8	0.30	2.19	3.14	D,M
Literacy Props	1.0	0.11	1.1	0.21	1.39	3.88	C,V
Tape	1.1	0.16	1.1	0.35	0.59	5.00	C,V
Discussion	1.3	0.28	1.3	0.58	0.24	4.29	C,V
Role Play/ Teacher-Student	1.0	0.05	1.0	0.12	0.56	5.00	C,V
Grammatical Patterns	1.3	0.28	1.5	0.56	0.90	4.13	C,V
Vocabulary	1.2	0.18	1.6	0.40	2.16	5.06	C,V
Pronunciation	1.2	0.19	1.4	0.43	1.32	4.93	D,V
Medical Orientation	1.2	0.34	1.1	0.14	0.93	5.69	D,V
Targeting:Other	1.2	0.36	1.1	0.15	0.97	5.49	D,V
Spoken Responses	2.2	0.43	2.6	0.41	2.15	1.11	C,M
Feedback:Other	1.3	0.35	1.5	0.74	0.61	4.49	C,V
Time on Task	6.6	0.54	6.9	0.16	0.13	12.12	C,V
Student Variables							
Spontaneous to Teacher	1.2	1.50	3.1	2.10	2.32	2.04	C,M
Reading Orally	1.4	2.10	0.4	0.70	1.47	8.66	D,V
Other on Task	1.4	1.80	4.2	5.60	1.32	9.51	C,V
Time on Task	0.98	0.02	0.95	0.06	1.22	6.59	C,V
Spontaneous Average	0.43	0.36	0.82	0.80	1.28	5.04	C,V
Elaborated Average	0.12	0.13	0.30	0.34	1.42	6.70	C,V

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*The value of T which is associated with a probability of .05 with ___ degrees of freedom is __.

**The value of F which is associated with a probability of .05 with ___ degrees of freedom is __.

Key: Mn = Mean
SD = Standard Deviation
D = Duplicate
M = Mean
C = Comparison
V = Variance

APPENDIX III-E

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION COVER SHEET

Observer ____________________ Class ID ____________________

Date ____________________ Teacher ____________________

Program ____________________ Scheduled Time ____________________

Day of Observation _____1st _____2nd _____3rd

Classroom Environment:

Type of Building ____________________

Temperature ____________________

External Noise Level ____________________

Lighting ____________________

Amount of Space ____________________

Classroom Location ____________________

Children Present _____No _____Yes ____________________

Other Factors ____________________

____

____

____

1. Now make seating chart on Spontaneous Speech Sheet. Circle seats, fill out age and sex.
2. Put an "X" through any seats whose student is blocked from view.
3. Don't collect data on blocked students.
4. Use your random numbers chart and choose 5 students for student behavior observation.
5. Put the seat number of those students on the Student Behavior Sheet.
6. Turn on the tape and start the general observation.

"Leveler" Tallies"

Other Person Answered	No Response	Inapprop. Response	Approp. Nonstd.	Approp. Std.	Approp. Elaborated

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GENERAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Observation Time Begins: ________

Observation Time Ends: ________

1. Check "Some" for each item as it occurs in 7-minute period.
2. For those categories where "A Lot" is a response alternative, fill in a check in "A Lot" box if an item occurred for at least half of 7-minute observation period.
3. For those categories requiring a rank, fill in numerical rank for all items checked "Some," "1" being that which was most emphasized. Ties get same rank.
4. Be sure to check "None" box for items which did not occur.

1. Language used by teacher

English only	☐
other	☐
English & another	☐

2. To what extent was instruction addressed to students

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
as a whole group	☐	☐	☐
in small groups	☐	☐	☐
individually at their seats	☐	☐	☐

3. To what extent did the teacher present English

	None	Some	Rank
in written form	☐	☐	☐
orally	☐	☐	☐
nonverbally	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

4. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Rank
board writing	☐	☐	☐
books	☐	☐	☐
worksheets	☐	☐	☐
literacy props	☐	☐	☐
drawings/photos	☐	☐	☐
film/video	☐	☐	☐
tape	☐	☐	☐
tangible objects	☐	☐	☐

9. To what extent did the teacher use the following targeting methods?

	None	Some	Rank
unison	☐	☐	☐
unstructured	☐	☐	☐
directed	☐	☐	☐
voluntary	☐	☐	☐
individual at seat	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

10. To what extent did the teacher require a

	None	Some	Rank
written response	☐	☐	☐
spoken response	☐	☐	☐
physical response	☐	☐	☐

11. To what extent was the corrective feedback style

	None	Some	Rank
immediate teacher correction	☐	☐	☐
teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
teacher recueing student	☐	☐	☐
other student correction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

12. How many students are using English that is

	None	Few 25%	Most 26%+
mechanical	☐	☐	☐
meaningful	☐	☐	☐
communicative	☐	☐	☐

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To what extent did the teacher direct student activity towards

	None	Some	Much
board work/displays	☐	☐	☐
seatwork	☐	☐	☐
testing/assessment	☐	☐	☐
recitation	☐	☐	☐
discussion	☐	☐	☐
listening/comprehension	☐	☐	☐
role playing-teacher/student	☐	☐	☐
role playing-student/student	☐	☐	☐
other teacher directed--student/student interaction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

To what extent were the following explicitly taught?

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
learning to read and write	☐	☐	☐
grammatical patterns	☐	☐	☐
vocabulary (indiv. words)	☐	☐	☐
pronunciation	☐	☐	☐
conversation	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

To what extent did the lesson content emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
medical orientation	☐	☐	☐
housing	☐	☐	☐
money/numeracy/time	☐	☐	☐
transportation	☐	☐	☐
shopping	☐	☐	☐
employment orientation	☐	☐	☐
other cultural orientation/survival skills	☐	☐	☐
ESL for specific jobs	☐	☐	☐
L1 content	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

13. How was teacher/student generation of speech balanced?

mostly teacher	☐
mostly student	☐
about the same	☐

14. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Much
formal English	☐	☐	☐
natural/colloquial English	☐	☐	☐
pidgin English	☐	☐	☐

15. To what extent did students introduce new material and/or questions?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

16. To what extent did the teacher incorporate these materials/questions into the lesson?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

17. How many aides were present?

_____ bilingual aide(s)

_____ only English speaking aide(s)

18. To what extent did aide activity emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5 mins.)
teaching	☐	☐	☐
individual tutoring	☐	☐	☐
interpretation	☐	☐	☐
taking students out of class	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

19. How many changes in lesson content occurred?

_____ change(s)

20. How many interruptions occurred?

_____ interruption(s)

21. How many minutes of the seven minute period was spent on instructional activities?

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Time Begin ________

End ________

CLASS SPONTANEOUS AND ELABORATED ENGLISH SPEECH

1. 5 min. observe and tick off spon. & elab. speech over entire class.
2. Should transitions, interruptions and/or breaks occur, stop timing tape and note down in appropriate classroom context box when such intervals begin and end. When lesson resumes, start timing tape and continue where observation left off.
3. Code context of the preceding 5 minutes.
4. 5 min. observe and tick.
5. Code context of the preceding 5 minutes.

1 Sex Age A B spon elab

2 Sex Age A B spon elab

3 Sex Age A B spon elab

4 Sex Age A B spon elab

5 Sex Age A B spon elab

6 Sex Age A B spon elab

7 Sex Age A B spon elab

8 Sex Age A B spon elab

9 Sex Age A B spon elab

10 Sex Age A B spon elab

11 Sex Age A B spon elab

12 Sex Age A B spon elab

13 Sex Age A B spon elab

14 Sex Age A B spon elab

15 Sex Age A B spon elab

16 Sex Age A B spon elab

17 Sex Age A B spon elab

18 Sex Age A B spon elab

19 Sex Age A B spon elab

20 Sex Age A B spon elab

21 Sex Age A B spon elab

22 Sex Age A B spon elab

23 Sex Age A B spon elab

24 Sex Age A B spon elab

25 Sex Age A B spon elab

26 Sex Age A B spon elab

27 Sex Age A B spon elab

28 Sex Age A B spon elab

29 Sex Age A B spon elab

30 Sex Age A B spon elab

31 Sex Age A B spon elab

32 Sex Age A B spon elab

33 Sex Age A B spon elab

34 Sex Age A B spon elab

35 Sex Age A B spon elab

36 Sex Age A B spon elab

37 Sex Age A B spon elab

38 Sex Age A B spon elab

39 Sex Age A B spon elab

40 Sex Age A B spon elab

41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age
A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B
spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon
elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab

49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age
A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B
spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon
elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab

57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64
Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age	Sex Age
A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B
spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon	spon
elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab	elab

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CLASSROOM CONTEXT

SWEEP INTERVAL	A								B							
Lang. of Inst.	E	O	B						E	O	B					
How Eng. is Pres.	W	V	NV	O					W	V	NV	O				
Group Size	whole	small	indiv.						whole	small	indiv.					
Materials	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none
Lesson Activities	brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O		brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O	
Mod. of Target Res.	unison	D	V	1+1	Unst	O			unison	D	V	1+1	Unst	O		
Level of Lang. Use	mech.	mean.	comm.						mech.	mean.	comm.					
	time begin	time end							time begin	time end						
Transition																
Interruption																
Break																

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Observation Time Begins: ______

Observation Time Ends: ______

STUDENT BEHAVIOR OBSERVATION

1. 1 minute per student
2. 6 seconds allotted for each numbered column (check 1 box per column)
3. 30 seconds for coding context
4. repeat

Student # ______ Seat # ______

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	?										
	-										

Student # ______ Seat # ______

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	/										
	-										

DR = English Directed Response/Unison

ST = English Spontaneous to Teacher

SS = English Spontaneous to Student

Student # ______ Seat # ______

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	ET										
	[illegible]										
	LIT										
	LIT										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	[illegible]										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	-										

Student # ______ Seat # ______

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	-										

Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

ET = English Elaboration to Teacher

ES = English Elaboration to Student

L1T = L1 to Teacher

L1S = L1 to Student

?T = ? Language to Teacher

?S = ? Language to Student

RO = Reading Oral

RS = Reading Silent

W = Writing

O = Other on Task

? = Can't Tell

- = Off Task

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Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # ____ Beat # ____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

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CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Lang. of Inst.	E	O	B					
How Eng. is Pres.	W	V	WV	O				
Group Size	whole	small	indiv					
Materials	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none
Lesson Activ.	brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O	
Mtd. of Target Res.	unison	D	V	1+1	unst	O		
Level of Lang. Use	mech.	mean.	comm.					
Transition/Interruption	Yes	Part All	No					

Lang. of Inst.	E	O	B					
How Eng. is Pres.	W	V	WV	O				
Group Size	whole	small	indiv					
Materials	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none
Lesson Activ.	brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O	
Mtd. of Target Res.	unison	D	V	1+1	unst	O		
Level of Lang. Use	mech.	mean.	comm.					
Transition/Interruption	Yes	Part All	No					

GENERAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

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Observation Time Begins: ________

Observation Time Ends: ________

1. Check "Some" for each item as it occurs in 7-minute period.
2. For those categories where "A Lot" is a response alternative, fill in a check in "A Lot" box if an item occurred for at least half of 7-minute observation period.
3. For those categories requiring a rank, fill in numerical rank for all items checked "Some," "1" being that which was most emphasized. Ties get same rank.
4. Be sure to check "None" box for items which did not occur.

1. Language used by teacher

English only ☐

other ☐

English & another ☐

2. To what extent was instruction addressed to students

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
as a whole group	☐	☐	☐
in small groups	☐	☐	☐
individually at their seats	☐	☐	☐

3. To what extent did the teacher present English

	None	Some	Rank
in written form	☐	☐	☐
orally	☐	☐	☐
nonverbally	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

4. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Rank
board writing	☐	☐	☐
books	☐	☐	☐
worksheets	☐	☐	☐
literacy props	☐	☐	☐
drawings/photos	☐	☐	☐
film/video	☐	☐	☐
tape	☐	☐	☐
tangible objects	☐	☐	☐

9. To what extent did the teacher use the following targeting methods?

	None	Some	Rank
unison	☐	☐	☐
unstructured	☐	☐	☐
directed	☐	☐	☐
voluntary	☐	☐	☐
individual at seat	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

10. To what extent did the teacher require a

	None	Some	Rank
written response	☐	☐	☐
spoken response	☐	☐	☐
physical response	☐	☐	☐

11. To what extent was the corrective feedback style

	None	Some	Rank
immediate teacher correction	☐	☐	☐
teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
teacher recueing student	☐	☐	☐
other student correction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

12. How many students are using English that is

	None	Few 25%	Most 26%+
mechanical	☐	☐	☐
meaningful	☐	☐	☐
communicative	☐	☐	☐

5. To what extent were students using at their desks at teachers direction

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
written materials	☐	☐	☐
tangible objects	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

6. To what extent did the teacher direct student activity towards

	None	Some	Much
board work/displays	☐	☐	☐
seatwork	☐	☐	☐
testing/assessment	☐	☐	☐
recitation	☐	☐	☐
discussion	☐	☐	☐
listening/comprehension	☐	☐	☐
role playing-teacher/student	☐	☐	☐
role playing-student/student	☐	☐	☐
other teacher directed-- student/student interaction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

7. To what extent were the following explicitly taught?

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
learning to read and write	☐	☐	☐
grammatical patterns	☐	☐	☐
vocabulary (indiv. words)	☐	☐	☐
pronunciation	☐	☐	☐
conversation	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

13. How was teacher/student generation of speech balanced?

mostly teacher	☐
mostly student	☐
about the same	☐

14. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Much
formal English	☐	☐	☐
natural/colloquial English	☐	☐	☐
pidgin English	☐	☐	☐

15. To what extent did students introduce new material and/or questions?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

16. To what extent did the teacher incorporate these materials/questions into the lesson?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

17. How many aides were present?

_____ bilingual aide(s)

_____ only English speaking aide(s)

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17. To what extent did the lesson content emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
medical orientation	☐	☐	☐
housing	☐	☐	☐
money/numeracy/time	☐	☐	☐
transportation	☐	☐	☐
shopping	☐	☐	☐
employment orientation	☐	☐	☐
other cultural orientation/survival skills	☐	☐	☐
ESL for specific jobs	☐	☐	☐
L1 content	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

18. To what extent did aide activity emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5 mins.)
teaching	☐	☐	☐
individual tutoring	☐	☐	☐
interpretation	☐	☐	☐
taking students out of class	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

19. How many changes in lesson content occurred?

____ change(s)

20. How many interruptions occurred?

____ interruption(s)

21. How many minutes of the seven minute period was spent on instructional activities?

TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS FOR USING LEVELER

1. Please read the questions in the order given. Read them word for word, exactly as written.

2. Go around the room in order, asking the next numbered question to the next student. Don't skip any students--it's expected that some son't be able to answer the question.

3. If the student doesn't answer the question, just go on to the next student in order, asking the next question on the list.

4. Go down the list and around the room until all students have been given one question.

5. If you run out of questions, just go back to question number 1 and continue around.

Thanks for your time and help!

STUDENT QUESTIONS

Where are you from?

What's your address?

What's your date of birth?

What do you do when you are sick?

What time do you go home from school?

Where do you live?

What do people call you?

What languages do you speak?

Are you married or single?

What's your phone number?

How long have you been living in the United States?

How long have you been studying English?

How do you get to school?

What do you do for a living?

When did you come to _________ (name of this city)?

What kind of transportation do you take to school?

How many people live in your house?

What's your native country?

How old are you?

How old were you when you left your country?

When did you arrive in the U.S.?

What's your name?

When do you come to school?

How many children do you have?

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APPENDIX IV

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

Administrator Discussion Guidelines

1. (Note sex, age, ethnicity) What is your background and experience in working with ESL and refugees?
2. When was your program set up?
3. How has it changed since then?
4. What do you envision it looking like two years from now?
5. What does your program do best? (What are its greatest strengths?)
6. What are the greatest barriers the program has in delivering effective English language training? How would you like to see these barriers overcome?
7. How do you see your role as administrator?
8. What do you spend most of your time doing (planning, budget, supervising, teaching, etc.)?
9. Do you ever visit classes? Formally or informally? How often?
10. Does the program have written objectives? (If yes, ask to obtain a copy.) Who developed them? If there are no written objectives, what do you see as the primary objectives of your program? How is progress toward objectives assessed?
11. What follow up is done on exiting students?
12. Does your program have a written curriculum? (If yes, ask for a copy.) Do all the teachers know about it? Is it required that they follow it? How much discretion do teachers have in planning their lessons, choosing methods, materials, etc.?
13. Are teachers given planning time built into their day or hourly wage? Do you think that teachers are overburdened, or is their workload about right?
14. Are there regular staff meetings? When was the last one? Are staff meetings mandatory?
15. What kinds of inservice training have been offered to the staff in the last year. [illegible] staff paid to attend?

16. Do you feel there are any particular English language training approaches or materials that are particularly effective for the target population (SE Asian refugees with little educational background)? Has the program developed any of its own materials? (Ask to collect later.) What emphasis do you feel should be placed on literacy training versus speaking?

17. What teacher characteristics or experience do you feel are best for teaching English to SE Asian refugees with little or no educational background?

18. What assessment techniques does your program use for student placement and diagnosis? Is it mandatory? What instruments are used? (Ask to collect a copy later.) Who administers it?

19. Does your refugee program have a separate advisory board or other formal links with employers, other agencies, and/or refugee community leaders?

20. In your view, what are the most important links for programs to maintain with other parts of the community?

21. How often do you meet with other local ESL providers? Who sponsors such meetings?

22. Are volunteers recruited to help in your program? How are they used? Who does the recruiting? How can volunteerism be increased?

23. Describe the links between employment services for refugees in your area and your program?

24. Describe the links among eligibility for Refugee Cash Assistance, employment services and participation in English language training.

25. How helpful is your English language program in getting students jobs? What kinds of jobs do they get?

26. In general, how much do you feel employment helps refugees' English skills compared to class?

27. In your opinion, how can private sector support English langauge training services for refugees?

28. Other comments.

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Student Discussion Guidelines

1. How did you learn about this program?
2. Why did you choose this program?
3. How long have you been studying here?
4. How do you get to school (transportation)?
5. How do you practice English outside of class? Who do you practice with? Do you study outside of class?
6. For you, what is the most difficult thing about learning English?
7. What do you think is the easiest thing about learning English?
8. Do you and your teacher talk in English outside of the classroom?
9. Who do you talk to if you have problems with schoolwork?
10. (Note sex and ethnic group here.) How old are you? What is your previous education? (If none, ask: Can you read at least a little bit in your native language?) When did you arrive in the U.S.?
11. Do you think my being in class today made the class any different?

Teacher Discussion Guidelines

1. How long have you been teaching here? How long have you been teaching ESL or working with refugees? With what groups?

2. What is your goal for your students?

3. What do you see as the greatest barrier or impediment to your being an effective ESL teacher?

4. Do you follow a curriculum designated by the program? If no, why not?

5. Does the program provide you with the materials, training, and other kinds of support you need? If no, what else do you need? Is the physical environment you teach in appropriate?

6. When was the last time you had a staff meeting? When was the last inservice training?

7. How do you share teaching problems (formally, informally, who, etc.)? Do you know what other teachers in the program are doing?

8. Does anyone evaluate your class? Do you get feedback on it?

9. How do you influence decision making in the program?

10. How do various ethnic groups provide input in program design or implementation?

11. Are there special considerations in planning for teaching ESL to this population compared with other ESL students?

12. What methods do you use and why?

13. What materials and methods do you consider most effective for this population (SE Asian refugees with little educational background) and level?

14. How do you track students' progress? Is the instrument you use provided by the program? Is it required by the program? How often do you use it?

15. What are reasons for refugees coming or not coming to class? How is your attendance (on an average day, what percent of students are there)?

16. What is the students' greatest barrier or impediment in acquiring English?

17. What do you feel the strongest determinant is in students' successfully acquiring English (e.g., teaching, individual background, family, etc.)?

Teacher Discussion - Continued

18. What do you feel is the most important trait or experience an ESL teacher needs for teaching this population?

19. How much emphasis do you think should be placed on reading and writing vs. speaking in learning ESL?

20. How has my presence in your class affected the class? Were the classes more or less typical, or different than usual?

Bilingual Aide Discussion Guidelines

1. (Note sex and ethnic group.) How old are you? What is your educational background? What is your work experience with ESL and/or refugees?
2. What kinds of tasks are you called upon to do?
3. Is your work load too heavy or about right?
4. What are some of the difficulties you have in performing your assigned tasks?
5. What percentage of your time is spent in classes? What do you spend most of your time on?
6. How does the program respond to your suggestions?
7. Do teachers and administration provide you with enough support to do your job? If not, what else could they do to help?
8. How much contact do you have with teachers in the program outside of class?
9. Do you have any contact with students outside of class? Do students ever contact you at home? What do they need?
10. From your contacts with students, what do you think are the most important English needs of students in your ethnic group?
11. What are things the program could do to fill those needs?
12. In your opinion, what emphasis should be given to reading and writing vs. speaking in English language training?
13. How is instruction here helping students find jobs?
14. How much English do you think students learn in school compared to at work?

APPENDIX V

COMMUNITY SURVEY INSTRUMENT
(English Language Version)

Form Approved
OMB #0960-0285
Expires 9-30-82

Interview No. ____________________

Interviewer ____________________

COMMUNITY SURVEY

Study of Refugee English Language Training

Date ____________________

City ____________________

Ethnic Group ____________________

Person Interviewed ____________________

Address ____________________

Telephone No. ____________________

A. Household Information

1. How many people live in your household?

2. How many adults 20 or older live in your household?

3. How long have you lived at this residence?

4. Do you have a telephone? (Yes/No)

5. Is anyone in your household receiving public assistance? (Yes/No)

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B. **Individual Information-Background Characteristics**

Please tell me about yourself and each member of your household aged 20 or older.

What are their names?					
1. How old is ______?					
2. Sex	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F
3. How many years of education in native country?	______ years	______ years	______ years	______ years	______ years
4. What languages does ______ speak?					
5. What languages does ______ read or write a little?					
6. When did ______ arrive in U.S.?					
7. Is ______ working now? If yes:	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
a. How many hours did ______ work last week?	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours
b. How much money did ______ earn last week?	$__________	$__________	$__________	$__________	$__________
8. Has ______ worked in the past in U.S.?	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
9. How long has ______ lived in __________ ______________? (fill in this area)	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months

	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now
10. a. How would you best describe ______'s ability to speak English? (choose one) 1. not at all 2. a few words 3. a little 4. fair 5. well										
b. Which of these things can ______ do without an interpreter?										
1. take bus, count change, or get help in an emergency	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
2. can speak alittle in English with someone they know	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
3. can speak alittle in English with strangers	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
4. can look for a job	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No

	______	______	______	______	______
11. Did ______ study English before coming to this area? Place? ______					
How many weeks?	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks
How many hours per week?	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours
Place? ______					
How many weeks?	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks
How many hours per week?	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours
Place? ______					
How many weeks?	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks	______ weeks
How many hours per week?	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours

APPENDIX III-D

DATA ANALYSIS--TEACHER STYLE

The two groups of teachers were compared by teaching behaviors (from the classroom checklist) and by the student behaviors they elicited (from the student behavior checklist, and the spontaneous and elaborated speech observations). Within the groups of teachers who teach two classes, each teacher is observed twice. In the comparison group, each teacher is represented only once. The frequency of each variable to be examined is not of primary importance in this analysis. What is more interesting is the variance of each variable. The variance of an observation may be considered to consist of two parts: (1) the part due to the differences between the different teachers, and (2) the part due to changes by the same teacher from time to time. It is expected that between teachers, variance is about the same for the two groups of teachers. If there is a difference between the groups, it is expected to result from the greater consistency (less variance) of teachers compared with themselves. To measure the difference in the variances of the two groups, an F-test was performed. A F-test is a simple ratio of the variances of the two groups which takes into account how many observations were made. Listed in the following table are the significant results from these comparisons.

There were almost 100 comparisons made between these two groups at the .05 level of significance for both mean and variance differences. There were only three statistically significant differences found between the groups can be claimed. In contrast, 16 statistically significant differences in variances were observed. As expected, the group of duplicate teachers showed smaller variances than the comparison group. In only three cases was the trend reversed--just about what would be expected by chance.

Table III-D-1

DATA ANALYSIS--TEACHER STYLE

	Duplicates		Comparison				
	Mn	SD	Mn	SD	T*	F*	Which is Greater?
Teacher Variables							
Boardwriting	2.3	0.53	1.8	0.30	2.19	3.14	D,M
Literacy Props	1.0	0.11	1.1	0.21	1.39	3.98	C,V
Tape	1.1	0.16	1.1	0.35	0.59	5.00	C,V
Discussion	1.3	0.28	1.3	0.58	0.24	4.29	C,V
Role Play/ Teacher-Student	1.0	0.05	1.0	0.12	0.56	5.00	C,V
Grammatical Patterns	1.3	0.28	1.5	0.56	0.90	4.13	C,V
Vocabulary	1.2	0.18	1.6	0.40	2.16	5.06	C,V
Pronunciation	1.2	0.19	1.4	0.43	1.32	4.93	D,V
Medical Orientation	1.2	0.34	1.1	0.14	0.93	5.69	D,V
Targeting:Other	1.2	0.36	1.1	0.15	0.97	5.49	D,V
Spoken Responses	2.2	0.43	2.6	0.41	2.15	1.11	C,M
Feedback:Other	1.3	0.35	1.5	0.74	0.61	4.49	C,V
Time on Task	6.6	0.54	6.9	0.16	0.13	12.12	C,V
Student Variables							
Spontaneous to Teacher	1.2	1.50	3.1	2.10	2.32	2.04	C,M
Reading Orally	1.4	2.10	0.4	0.70	1.47	8.66	D,V
Other on Task	1.4	1.80	4.2	5.60	1.32	9.51	C,V
Time on Task	0.98	0.02	0.95	0.06	1.22	6.59	C,V
Spontaneous Average	0.43	0.36	0.82	0.80	1.28	5.04	C,V
Elaborated Average	0.12	0.13	0.30	0.34	1.42	6.70	C,V

---

*The value of T which is associated with a probability of .05 with ___ degrees of freedom is __.

**The value of F which is associated with a probability of .05 with ___ degrees of freedom is __.

Key: Mn = Mean
SD = Standard Deviation
D = Duplicate
M = Mean
C = Comparison
V = Variance

APPENDIX III-E

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION COVER SHEET

Observer ____________________ Class ID ____________________

Date ____________________ Teacher ____________________

Program ____________________ Scheduled Time ____________________

Day of Observation _____1st _____2nd _____3rd

Classroom Environment:

Type of Building ____________________

Temperature ____________________

External Noise Level ____________________

Lighting ____________________

Amount of Space ____________________

Classroom Location ____________________

Children Present _____No _____Yes ____________________

Other Factors ____________________

1. Now make seating chart on Spontaneous Speech Sheet. Circle seats, fill out age and sex.
2. Put an "X" through any seats whose student is blocked from view.
3. Don't collect data on blocked students.
4. Use your random numbers chart and choose 5 students for student behavior observation.
5. Put the seat number of those students on the Student Behavior Sheet.
6. Turn on the tape and start the general observation.

"Leveler" Tallies"

Other Person Answered	No Response	Inapprop. Response	Approp. Nonstd.	Approp. Std.	Approp. Elaborated

GENERAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Observation Time Begins: ________

Observation Time Ends: ________

1. Check "Some" for each item as it occurs in 7-minute period.
2. For those categories where "A lot" is a response alternative, fill in a check in "A lot" box if an item occurred for at least half of 7-minute observation period.
3. For those categories requiring a rank, fill in numerical rank for all items checked "Some," "1" being that which was most emphasized. Ties get same rank.
4. Be sure to check "None" box for items which did not occur.

1. Language used by teacher

English only	☐
other	☐
English & another	☐

2. To what extent was instruction addressed to students

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
as a whole group	☐	☐	☐
in small groups	☐	☐	☐
individually at their seats	☐	☐	☐

3. To what extent did the teacher present English

	None	Some	Rank
in written form	☐	☐	☐
orally	☐	☐	☐
nonverbally	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

4. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Rank
board writing	☐	☐	☐
books	☐	☐	☐
worksheets	☐	☐	☐
literacy props	☐	☐	☐
drawings/photos	☐	☐	☐
film/video	☐	☐	☐
tape	☐	☐	☐
tangible objects	☐	☐	☐

9. To what extent did the teacher use the following targeting methods?

	None	Some	Rank
unison	☐	☐	☐
unstructured	☐	☐	☐
directed	☐	☐	☐
voluntary	☐	☐	☐
individual at seat	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

10. To what extent did the teacher require a

	None	Some	Rank
written response	☐	☐	☐
spoken response	☐	☐	☐
physical response	☐	☐	☐

11. To what extent was the corrective feedback style

	None	Some	Rank
immediate teacher correction	☐	☐	☐
teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
teacher cueing student	☐	☐	☐
other student correction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

12. How many students are using English that is

	None	Few 25%	Most 26%+
mechanical	☐	☐	☐
meaningful	☐	☐	☐
communicative	☐	☐	☐

. To what extent did the teacher direct student activity towards

	None	Some	Much
board work/displays	☐	☐	☐
seatwork	☐	☐	☐
testing/assessment	☐	☐	☐
recitation	☐	☐	☐
discussion	☐	☐	☐
listening/comprehension	☐	☐	☐
role playing-teacher/student	☐	☐	☐
role playing-student/student	☐	☐	☐
other teacher directed--student/student interaction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

To what extent were the following explicitly taught?

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
learning to read and write	☐	☐	☐
grammatical patterns	☐	☐	☐
vocabulary (indiv. words)	☐	☐	☐
pronunciation	☐	☐	☐
conversation	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

To what extent did the lesson content emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
medical orientation	☐	☐	☐
housing	☐	☐	☐
money/numeracy/time	☐	☐	☐
transportation	☐	☐	☐
shopping	☐	☐	☐
employment orientation	☐	☐	☐
other cultural orientation/survival skills	☐	☐	☐
ESL for specific jobs	☐	☐	☐
L1 content	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

13. How was teacher/student generation of speech balanced?

mostly teacher ☐
mostly student ☐
about the same ☐

14. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Much
formal English	☐	☐	☐
natural/colloquial English	☐	☐	☐
pidgin English	☐	☐	☐

15. To what extent did students introduce new material and/or questions?

none ☐
3 times or less ☐
More than 3 times ☐

16. To what extent did the teacher incorporate these materials/questions into the lesson?

none ☐
3 times or less ☐
More than 3 times ☐

17. How many aides were present?

_____ bilingual aide(s)
_____ only English speaking aide(s)

18. To what extent did aide activity emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5 mins.)
teaching	☐	☐	☐
individual tutoring	☐	☐	☐
interpretation	☐	☐	☐
taking students out of class	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

19. How many changes in lesson content occurred?

_____ change(s)

20. How many interruptions occurred?

_____ interruption(s)

21. How many minutes of the seven minute period was spent on instructional activities?

Time Begin ________

End ________

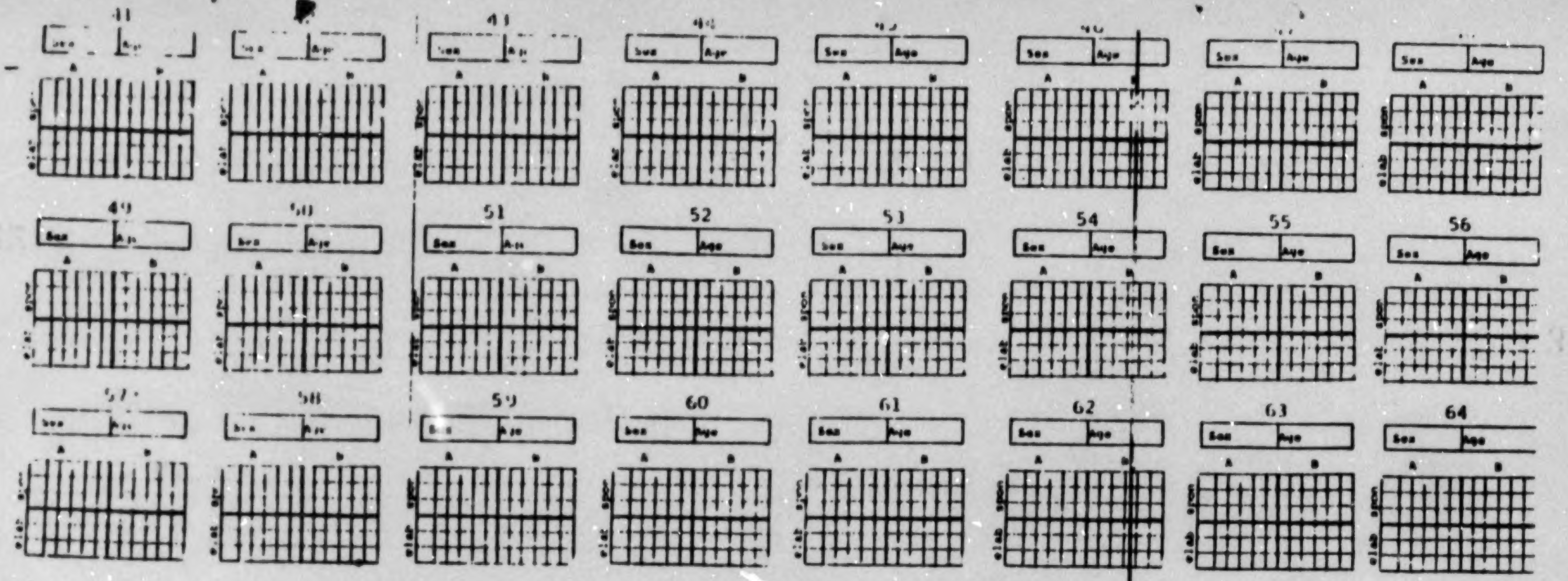
CLASS SPONTANEOUS AND ELABORATED ENGLISH SPEECH

1. 5 min. observe and tick off spon. & elab. speech over entire class.
2. Should transitions, interruptions and/or breaks occur, stop timing tape and note down in appropriate classroom context box when such intervals begin and end. When lesson resumes, start timing tape and continue where observation left off.
3. Code context of the preceding 5 minutes.
4. 5 min. observe and tick.
5. Code context of the preceding 5 minutes.

1	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
2	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
3	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
4	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
5	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
6	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
7	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
8	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
9	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
10	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
11	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
12	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
13	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
14	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
15	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
16	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
17	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
18	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
19	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
20	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
21	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
22	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
23	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
24	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
25	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
26	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
27	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
28	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
29	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
30	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
31	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
32	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
33	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
34	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
35	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
36	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
37	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
38	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
39	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.
40	Sex	Age	A	B	spon.	elab.

322

323



41
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63
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Sex
Age
A
B
elab
spon

CLASSROOM CONTEXT

SWEEP INTERVAL	A	B
Lang. of Inst.	E O B	E O B
How Lng. is Pres.	W V NV O	W V NV O
Group Size	whole small indiv.	whole small indiv.
Materials	brd bk wksh lit prop drw. photo T obj none	brd bk wksh lit prop drw. photo T obj none
Lesson Activities	brdwk display swk recit discus listen role play O	brdwk display swk recit discus listen role play O
Mtd. of Target Res.	unison D V 1+1 Unst O	unison D V 1+1 Unst O
Level of Lang. Use	mech. mean. comm.	mech. mean. comm.
	time begin time end	time begin time end
Transition		
Interruption		
Break		

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	FT										
	FS										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	PT										
	PS										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	O										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	FT										
	FS										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										

Observation Time Begins: _____

Observation Time Ends: _____

STUDENT BEHAVIOR OBSERVATION

1. 1 minute per student
2. 6 seconds allotted for each numbered column (check 1 box per column)
3. 30 seconds for coding context
4. repeat

DR = English Directed Response/Unison

ST = English Spontaneous to Teacher

SS = English Spontaneous to Student

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	FT										
	FS										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	LIT										
	LIS										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
reading	R										
writing	W										
other	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										
	[illegible]										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

ET = English Elaboration to Teacher

ES = English Elaboration to Student

L1T = L1 to Teacher

L1S = L1 to Student

?T = ? Language to Teacher

?S = ? Language to Student

RO = Reading Oral

RS = Reading Silent

W = Writing

O = Other on Task

? = Can't Tell

- = Off Task

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

Student # _____ Seat # _____

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
spoken language	DR										
	ST										
	SS										
	ET										
	ES										
	L1T										
	L1S										
	?T										
	?S										
reading	RO										
	RS										
writing	W										
other	O										
	?										
	-										

CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Lang. of Inst.	E	O	B					
How Eng. is Pres.	W	V	NV	O				
Group Size	whole	small	indiv					
Materials	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none
Lesson Activ.	brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O	
Mtd. of Target Res.	unison	D	V	1+1	unst	O		
Level of Lang. Use	mech.	mean.	comm.					
Transition/Interruption	Yes	Part All	No					

Lang. of Inst.	E	O	B					
How Eng. is Pres.	W	V	NV	O				
Group Size	whole	small	indiv					
Materials	brd	bk	wksh	lit prop	drw. photo	T	obj	none
Lesson Activ.	brdwk display	swk	recit	discus	listen	role play	O	
Mtd. of Target Res.	unison	D	V	1+1	unst	O		
Level of Lang. Use	mech.	mean.	comm.					
Transition/Interruption	Yes	Part All	No					

GENERAL CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Observation Time Begins: ______

Observation Time Ends: ______

1. Check "Some" for each item as it occurs in 7-minute period.
2. For those categories where "A Lot" is a response alternative, fill in a check in "A Lot" box if an item occurred for at least half of 7-minute observation period.
3. For those categories requiring a rank, fill in numerical rank for all items checked "Some," "1" being that which was most emphasized. Ties get same rank.
4. __Be sure__ to check "None" box for items which did not occur.

1. Language used by teacher

English only	☐
other	☐
English & another	☐

2. To what extent was instruction addressed to students

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
as a whole group	☐	☐	☐
in small groups	☐	☐	☐
individually at their seats	☐	☐	☐

3. To what extent did the teacher present English

	None	Some	Rank
in written form	☐	☐	☐
orally	☐	☐	☐
nonverbally	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

4. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Rank
board writing	☐	☐	☐
books	☐	☐	☐
worksheets	☐	☐	☐
literary props	☐	☐	☐
drawings/photos	☐	☐	☐
film/video	☐	☐	☐
tape	☐	☐	☐
tangible objects	☐	☐	☐

9. To what extent did the teacher use the following targeting methods?

	None	Some	Rank
unison	☐	☐	☐
unstructured	☐	☐	☐
directed	☐	☐	☐
voluntary	☐	☐	☐
individual at seat	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

10. To what extent did the teacher require a

	None	Some	Rank
written response	☐	☐	☐
spoken response	☐	☐	☐
physical response	☐	☐	☐

11. To what extent was the corrective feedback style

	None	Some	Rank
immediate teacher correction	☐	☐	☐
teacher solicitation answer elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
teacher recueing student	☐	☐	☐
other student correction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

12. How many students are using English that is

	None	Few 25%	Most 26%+
mechanical	☐	☐	☐
meaningful	☐	☐	☐
communicative	☐	☐	☐

5. To what extent were students using at their desks at teachers direction

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
written materials	☐	☐	☐
sensible objects	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

6. To what extent did the teacher direct student activity towards

	None	Some	Much
board work/displays	☐	☐	☐
seatwork	☐	☐	☐
testing/assessment	☐	☐	☐
recitation	☐	☐	☐
discussion	☐	☐	☐
listening/comprehension	☐	☐	☐
role playing-teacher/student	☐	☐	☐
role playing-student/student	☐	☐	☐
other teacher directed-- student/student interaction	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

7. To what extent were the following explicitly taught?

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
learning to read and write	☐	☐	☐
grammatical patterns	☐	☐	☐
vocabulary (indiv. words)	☐	☐	☐
pronunciation	☐	☐	☐
conversation	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

13. How was teacher/student generation of speech balanced?

mostly teacher	☐
mostly student	☐
about the same	☐

14. To what extent did the teacher use

	None	Some	Much
formal English	☐	☐	☐
natural/colloquial English	☐	☐	☐
pidgin English	☐	☐	☐

15. To what extent did students introduce new material and/or questions?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

16. To what extent did the teacher incorporate these materials/questions into the lesson?

none	☐
3 times or less	☐
More than 3 times	☐

17. How many aides were present?

_____ bilingual aide(s)

_____ only English speaking aide(s)

8. To what extent did the lesson content emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5+ mins.)
medical orientation	☐	☐	☐
housing	☐	☐	☐
money/numeracy/time	☐	☐	☐
transportation	☐	☐	☐
shopping	☐	☐	☐
employment orientation	☐	☐	☐
other cultural orientation/survival skills	☐	☐	☐
ESL for specific jobs	☐	☐	☐
L1 content	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

18. To what extent did side activity emphasize

	None	Some	A Lot (3.5 mins.)
teaching	☐	☐	☐
individual tutoring	☐	☐	☐
interpretation	☐	☐	☐
taking students out of class	☐	☐	☐
other	☐	☐	☐

19. How many changes in lesson content occurred?

_____ change(s)

20. How many interruptions occurred?

_____ interruption(s)

21. How many minutes of the seven minute period was spent on instructional activities?

TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS FOR USING LEVELER

1. Please read the questions in the order given. Read them word for word, exactly as written.

2. Go around the room in order, asking the next numbered question to the next student. Don't skip any students--it's expected that some won't be able to answer the question.

3. If the student doesn't answer the question, just go on to the next student in order, asking the next question on the list.

4. Go down the list and around the room until all students have been given one question.

5. If you run out of questions, just go back to question number 1 and continue around.

Thanks for your time and help!

STUDENT QUESTIONS

Where are you from?

What's your address?

What's your date of birth?

What do you do when you are sick?

What time do you go home from school?

Where do you live?

What do people call you?

What languages do you speak?

Are you married or single?

What's your phone number?

How long have you been living in the United States?

How long have you been studying English?

How do you get to school?

What do you do for a living?

When did you come to _________ (name of this city)?

What kind of transportation do you take to school?

How many people live in your house?

What's your native country?

How old are you?

How old were you when you left your country?

When did you arrive in the U.S.?

What's your name?

When do you come to school?

How many children do you have?

Form 46

APPENDIX IV

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

Administrator Discussion Guidelines

1. (Note sex, age, ethnicity) What is your background and experience in working with ESL and refugees?
2. When was your program set up?
3. How has it changed since then?
4. What do you envision it looking like two years from now?
5. What does your program do best? (What are its greatest strengths?)
6. What are the greatest barriers the program has in delivering effective English language training? How would you like to see these barriers overcome?
7. How do you see your role as administrator?
8. What do you spend most of your time doing (planning, budget, supervising, teaching, etc.)?
9. Do you ever visit classes? Formally or informally? How often?
10. Does the program have written objectives? (If yes, ask to obtain a copy.) Who developed them? If there are no written objectives, what do you see as the primary objectives of your program? How is progress toward objectives assessed?
11. What follow up is done on exiting students?
12. Does your program have a written curriculum? (If yes, ask for a copy.) Do all the teachers know about it? Is it required that they follow it? How much discretion do teachers have in planning their lessons, choosing methods, materials, etc.?
13. Are teachers given planning time built into their day or hourly wage? Do you think that teachers are overburdened, or is their workload about right?
14. Are there regular staff meetings? When was the last one? Are staff meetings mandatory?
15. What kinds of inservice training have been offered to the staff in the last year. Are staff paid to attend?

Administrator Discussions - Continued

16. Do you feel there are any particular English language training approaches or materials that are particularly effective for the target population (SE Asian refugees with little educational background)? Has the program developed any of its own materials? (Ask to collect later.) What emphasis do you feel should be placed on literacy training versus speaking?

17. What teacher characteristics or experience do you feel are best for teaching English to SE Asian refugees with little or no educational background?

18. What assessment techniques does your program use for student placement and diagnosis? Is it mandatory? What instruments are used? (Ask to collect a copy later.) Who administers it?

19. Does your refugee program have a separate advisory board or other formal links with employers, other agencies, and/or refugee community leaders?

20. In your view, what are the most important links for programs to maintain with other parts of the community?

21. How often do you meet with other local ESL providers? Who sponsors such meetings?

22. Are volunteers recruited to help in your program? How are they used? Who does the recruiting? How can volunteerism be increased?

23. Describe the links between employment services for refugees in your area and your program?

24. Describe the links among eligibility for Refugee Cash Assistance, employment services and participation in English language training.

25. How helpful is your English language program in getting students jobs? What kinds of jobs do they get?

26. In general, how much do you feel employment helps refugees' English skills compared to class?

27. In your opinion, how can private sector support English langauge training services for refugees?

28. Other comments.

Student Discussion Guidelines

1. How did you learn about this program?
2. Why did you choose this program?
3. How long have you been studying here?
4. How do you get to school (transportation)?
5. How do you practice English outside of class? Who do you practice with? Do you study outside of class?
6. For you, what is the most difficult thing about learning English?
7. What do you think is the easiest thing about learning English?
8. Do you and your teacher talk in English outside of the classroom?
9. Who do you talk to if you have problems with schoolwork?
10. (Note sex and ethnic group here.) How old are you? What is your previous education? (If none, ask: Can you read at least a little bit in your native language?) When did you arrive in the U.S.?
11. Do you think my being in class today made the class any different?

Teacher Discussion Guidelines

1. How long have you been teaching here? How long have you been teaching ESL or working with refugees? With what groups?

2. What is your goal for your students?

3. What do you see as the greatest barrier or impediment to your being an effective ESL teacher?

4. Do you follow a curriculum designated by the program? If no, why not?

5. Does the program provide you with the materials, training, and other kinds of support you need? If no, what else do you need? Is the physical environment you teach in appropriate?

6. When was the last time you had a staff meeting? When was the last inservice training?

7. How do you share teaching problems (formally, informally, who, etc.)? Do you know what other teachers in the program are doing?

8. Does anyone evaluate your class? Do you get feedback on it?

9. How do you influence decision making in the program?

10. How do various ethnic groups provide input in program design or implementation?

11. Are there special considerations in planning for teaching ESL to this population compared with other ESL students?

12. What methods do you use and why?

13. What materials and methods do you consider most effective for this population (SE Asian refugees with little educational background) and level?

14. How do you track students' progress? Is the instrument you use provided by the program? Is it required by the program? How often do you use it?

15. What are reasons for refugees coming or not coming to class? How is your attendance (on an average day, what percent of students are there)?

16. What is the students' greatest barrier or impediment in acquiring English?

17. What do you feel the strongest determinant is in students' successfully acquiring English (e.g., teaching, individual background, family, etc.)?

Teacher Discussion - Continued

18. What do you feel is the most important trait or experience an ESL teacher needs for teaching this population?

19. How much emphasis do you think should be placed on reading and writing vs. speaking in learning ESL?

20. How has my presence in your class affected the class? Were the classes more or less typical, or different than usual?

Bilingual Aide Discussion Guidelines

1. (Note sex and ethnic group.) How old are you? What is your educational background? What is your work experience with ESL and/or refugees?
2. What kinds of tasks are you called upon to do?
3. Is your work load too heavy or about right?
4. What are some of the difficulties you have in performing your assigned tasks?
5. What percentage of your time is spent in classes? What do you spend most of your time on?
6. How does the program respond to your suggestions?
7. Do teachers and administration provide you with enough support to do your job? If not, what else could they do to help?
8. How much contact do you have with teachers in the program outside of class?
9. Do you have any contact with students outside of class? Do students ever contact you at home? What do they need?
10. From your contacts with students, what do you think are the most important English needs of students in your ethnic group?
11. What are things the program could do to fill those needs?
12. In your opinion, what emphasis should be given to reading and writing vs. speaking in English language training?
13. How is instruction here helping students find jobs?
14. How much English do you think students learn in school compared to at work?

APPENDIX V

COMMUNITY SURVEY INSTRUMENT
(English Language Version)

Interview No. ____________________

Interviewer ____________________

Form Approved
OMB #0960-0285
Expires 9-30-82

COMMUNITY SURVEY

Study of Refugee English Language Training

Date ____________________

City ____________________

Ethnic Group ____________________

Person Interviewed ____________________

Address ____________________

Telephone No. ____________________

A. Household Information

1. How many people live in your household?

2. How many adults 20 or older live in your household?

3. How long have you lived at this residence?

4. Do you have a telephone? (Yes/No)

5. Is anyone in your household receiving public assistance? (Yes/No)

B. Individual Information-Background Characteristics

Please tell me about yourself and each member of your household aged 20 or older.

What are their names?					
1. How old is ______?					
2. Sex	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F	M/F
3. How many years of education in native country?	______ years	______ years	______ years	______ years	______ years
4. What languages does ______ speak?					
5. What languages does ______ read or write a little?					
6. When did ______ arrive in U.S.?					
7. Is ______ working now? If yes:	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
a. How many hours did ______ work last week?	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours	______ hours
b. How much money did ______ earn last week?	$______	$______	$______	$______	$______
8. Has ______ worked in the past in U.S.?	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
9. How long has ______ lived in ______ ______? (fill in this area)	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months	______ years ______ months

	______		______		______		______		______	
	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now	First Month in U.S.	Now
10. a. How would you best describe ______'s ability to speak English? (choose one) 1. not at all 2. a few words 3. a little 4. fair 5. well										
b. Which of these things can ______ do without an interpreter?										
1. take bus, count change, or get help in an emergency	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
2. can speak alittle in English with someone they know	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
3. can speak alittle in English with strangers	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
4. can look for a job	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No

	____________	____________	____________	____________	____________
11. Did ______ study English before coming to this area? **Place?** ______________					
How many weeks?	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**
How many hours per week?	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**
Place? ______________					
How many weeks?	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**
How many hours per week?	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**
Place? ______________					
How many weeks?	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**	_______ **weeks**
How many hours per week?	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**	_______ **hours**